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ABSTRACT

This study attempted to provide an analytic basis for an operational definition of open education. The basic aims were 1) to define some of the essential pedagogical features of open education; 2) to develop explicit, concrete indicators for each feature; 3) to check the validity of the indicators with the major writings on the subject and with important theorists and practitioners in the United States and Great Britain; and 4) to make comparisons to other relevant approaches, such as progressive and affective education. Eight major themes were used as a framework: 1) instruction--guidance and extension of learning; 2) provisioning the classroom for learning; 3) diagnosis of learning events; 4) reflective evaluation of diagnostic information; 5) humaneness--respect, openness and warmth; 6) seeking opportunities to promote growth; 7) self-perception--the teacher's view of herself and her role; and 8) assumptions--ideas about children and the process of learning. Specific works of 28 selected authors were examined and analyzed for their attention to each of the eight themes. The authors were classified as writers of historical importance, progressive educators, popular critics, affective educators, and writers on open education. A list of pedagogical characteristics is presented, each accompanied by illustrative quotations from the literature. (MBM)

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CHARACTERISTICS OF OPEN EDUCATION:

A LOOK AT THE LITERATURE FOR TEACHERS

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Wisdom in discussing <u>any</u> subject requires that we speak with no more precision than the subject admits of.

Aristotle

"What else had you to learn?"

"Well, there was Mystery," the Mock Turtle replied, counting off the subjects on his flappers -- "Mystery, ancient and modern."

"And how many hours a day did you do lessons?" said Alice, in a hurry to change the subject.

"Ten hours the first day," said the Mock Turtle; "nine the next, and so on."

"What a curious plan!" exclaimed Alice.

"That's the reason they're called lessons," the Gryphon remarked; "because they lessen from day to day."

Lewis Carroll

TABLE OF CONTENTS

I. Introduction 1-2

II. Dominant Themes in the Literature 3-11

Identifying the Themes

Defining the Themes

III. Content Analysis of Open Education Literature 12-50

Background Literature
- Design of the Analysis
- Writers of Historical Importance
- Progressive Educators
- Popular Critics
- Affective Orientation

Open Education Literature
- Analysts/Researchers
- Reporters/Observers
- Advisors/Advocates
- Practitioners
- Summary

Overall Comparison

IV. Development of a List of Pedagogical Characteristics 51-55

V. Quotations from Major Writings 56-91

VI. Conclusion 92-93

VII. References 94-96

VIII. Appendix 97-109

I. INTRODUCTION

Open Education, the Integrated Day, the Developmental Classroom--these phrases refer to an educational movement that began in England and is growing in the United States. As more and more educators--with the desire to put philosophy into practice--are attracted to this movement; it becomes useful to look for consistent and agreed upon characteristics that distinguish this concept from other approaches to education.

But is any conceptual model appropriate? The Open Education approach is founded upon responsiveness to contingency and individuality--of students and of situation. Recognition of the uniqueness of every situation must inform any attempt to specify objectives and procedures. Implicit in every description of the approach is the conditional: "but it depends." The Open Education teacher is especially difficult to categorize, precisely because her guiding principle seems to be to respond as sensitively and reflectively as possible to the situational gestalt and to the unique child with whom she is interacting.

On the other hand, the mere awareness of this "non-model" quality of Open Education does not provide any practical help for transmuting idea into action. Some sort of operational definition--albeit one that allows for flexibility and individuality in response

to situational variations--is needed. This study was an attempt to provide an analytic basis for such a definition.* Basically, our aims were 1) to define some of the essential pedagogical features of Open Education; 2) to develop explicit, concrete indicators of each feature; 3) to check the validity of the indicators with the major writings on the subject and with important theorists and practitioners in the United States and Great Britain; and 4) to make comparisons to other relevant approaches, such as progressive and affective education.

This approach to the analysis of a developing concept in education requires brashness and inspires trepidation. Are plants to be pulled out by the roots to check their growth? Will one grow and bear seeds like another? Should it? Does a gardner start with a hothouse or compost, cross-pollinating or purifying the strain? In the end, a green thumb may only come from watching and helping a master and from doing one's own puttering; nevertheless, a systematic description of nature and nurture, including varieties, will be interesting to some and, perhaps, useful to a few.

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* This booklet is an abridged version of the final report of research carried out in Spring, 1971, under a grant from the U.S. Office of Education. Those interested in a more complete report including the research design are advised to consult Walberg and Thomas', Characteristics of Open Education (1971).

II. DOMINANT THEMES IN THE LITERATURE

> When visiting the classroom of good teachers one is always struck by their tendency to stand back and let the children's work be seen. The visitor will be told of the ideas suggested by the children, and success achieved by one or another child will be pointed out. Nothing will be said of their own share in bringing about a situation in which the child's ideas were accepted and used and their achievements encouraged and helped. This tendency, while it is very commendable as evidence of a teacher's unselfish interest in her pupils, sometimes misleads the inexperienced visitor who imagines that mere provision of materials and opportunities for the children have been all that was required. (Gardner and Cass, 1965, p. 21)

The Open Education teacher is distinguished by her awareness and alertness to the diversity of children's activities and learning styles. Her actions seem guided by the self-posed question: "What use can I be to this particular child at this particular moment?" As a human being and as a teacher, she views herself as a continual learner who will err, but whose job it is to respond, adapt, improvise, and be willing to change.

This is not to say, however, that the Open Education teacher operates in an ideological vacuum. She brings to each decision a set of attitudes and convictions about the nature of children, learning, and schooling. In deciding whether or when to intervene in a child's activity, she uses the totality of her experience, knowledge, and resources to perceive the child's needs and interest, both over the long range and in the immediate circumstance.

Recognizing that this description smacks of the unattainable role of "super-teacher," the Open Education teacher, nevertheless, accepts it as a goal, whose attainment is not altogether possible, but whose value lies partly in the effort expended toward it.

Understanding the teacher's role and assumptions also requires insight into how her behavior permits and encourages children's resourcefulness and individuality. Open Educators view the student as a significant decision-maker in determining the direction, scope, and pace of his education.

> Open Education teaching begins with the assumption that the children coming into a classroom come with capabilities and experiences--shared and unique--and it is the teacher's job to see that those resources give a direction and meaning to learning (Bussis and Chittenden, 1970, p. 15).

Both the child and the teacher occupy central positions in the classroom and in the child's instruction, an apparent paradox that perhaps most distinguishes the Open Education movement. Both parties must jointly assume the decision-making function in the classroom and together fashion the child's school experience, tailored to both his choice of immediate goals and the teacher's long term goals for him. Open Education differs from teacher-centered, child-centered, and materials-centered approaches in that it combines all three, with both the teacher and the child determining goals, materials, and activities.

IDENTIFYING THE THEMES

Any analysis of Open Education pedagogical style must then examine the teacher's role--not in isolation, but as it assumes and depends on the presence of children. Open Education literature was surveyed. Since the movement has been more highly developed at the level of primary education, we felt it appropriate to focus this analysis on the complex and interdependent themes recurrent in descriptions of Open Education for children from five to eight. In addition, we selected a number of other works that we felt would provide valuable points of comparison.

To organize the wealth of material relating to the teacher's role, a conceptual framework was needed. Bussis and Chittenden (1970) proposed conceptualizing the role of the teacher as a network of beliefs and behaviors which could be grouped according to ten themes. Their excellent theoretical framework and elaboration and changes based upon our reading of Open Education writings and upon our own thinking and observations served as a starting point. Our modification centered upon the following eight themes:

INSTRUCTION - guidance and extension of learning

PROVISIONING - provisioning the classroom for learning

DIAGNOSIS - diagnosis of learning events

EVALUATION - reflective evaluation of diagnostic information

HUMANENESS - respect, openness, and warmth

SEEKING - seeking opportunities to promote growth

SELF-PERCEPTION - the teacher's view of herself and her role

ASSUMPTIONS - ideas about children and the process of learning

Aspects of these themes overlap, since so many of the characteristics of Open Education are interrelated. Organizing according to themes facilitates examination of all the elements of classroom operation and provides means for ordering observation and analysis. What may seem arbitrary placement of some characteristics merely illustrates again the complex interdependence of all the characteristics and all the themes.

DEFINING THE THEMES

INSTRUCTION refers to the teacher's guidance and extension of learning--how she directs and responds in the classroom. The Open Education teacher shows a very high degree of individualized instruction and interaction and

does not operate as the focal point of the classroom. Along with the guiding principle of providing for significant choice, her instruction is characterized by spontaneity, responsiveness, and adaptability; much of her instructional time is devoted to listening and observing with a great deal of less formal questioning and informing than is usually found in classrooms.

> There are a few categorical statements that can be made about when and how a teacher should actively intervene or direct or redirect the course of some activity or to extend it in a meaningful way. Although teachers feel a great need for guidelines in this area, it is undoubtedly the most "iffy" and "it depends" topic of all . . . about the only thing that can be said with any assurance, therefore, is that the teacher is viewed primarily as a resource person whose job it is to encourage and influence. . . the direction and growth of learning activity (Bussis and Chittenden, 1970, pp. 39-40).

PROVISIONING refers to the teacher's responsibility for what is in the classroom and how it affects the children's learning. Under this theme come not only materials, equipment, and furniture which the teacher chooses and arranges, but also the procedures and expectations she establishes.

Thus, the organization of time, the grouping of children, and provision for their interaction, and the promotion of climate are all part of the teacher's provisioning for learning. As Bussis and Chittenden found, this theme is"central to an educational philosophy that stresses the importance of choice for children." (p. 37) One aspect of provisioning is deciding just when to provide. The teacher supplies a child with a book or a piece of equipment or material at a point when she estimates, as a result of watching and talking with him, that it will further stimulate his inquiry. Although she buys, orders,

or scrounges materials outside of the classroom, she plans their introduction carefully; she presents the materials at the appropriate moment, not simply as they become available. In a sense, from provisioning all else follows, but at the same time it is itself a result of the characteristics which make up each of the other themes.

DIAGNOSIS refers to the teacher's involvement as a sensitive on-looker or participating observer, or both. She views a child's work not only as a learning experience for the child, but also as an opportunity for her to learn about that child. She welcomes not only successful solutions and accurate reporting but also errors and fantasy, as indicators of the child's developmental concerns and thought processes. In Open Education, seeking diagnostic information in the learning process is important, because it determines instruction--that is, the way the teacher guides and extends the children's learning. The importance of constant and on-the-spot diagnosing means that the teacher cannot be expected to lay lesson plans for a month or even a week ahead. Instead, she must elicit information about the development of her children from day to day and respond to them individually on the basis of what she learns.

EVALUATION in Open Education is seen as having two purposes; one centers on its usefulness to the student, and the other, on its usefulness to the teacher in attempting to help the student. Evaluation is not seen as a way to compare a child's performance with predetermined goals or norms in order to report his strengths and deficiencies to his parents, future teachers, and employers, nor is its function to compare children to their peers. Rather, it is a means of providing a child and those interested in his development with information about his growth and learning. The purpose of this information is to assist him in seeking better ways to contribute to what he chooses to do and whom he chooses to be, and to help him gain the skills necessary to reach his goals.

Reflective evaluation takes place both during class time and after the children have left. The teacher's actions are shaped by a combination of not only her own careful reflection and her discussions with colleagues and advisors, but also her on-the-spot evaluation of the diagnostic information she constantly collects in class. Her recordkeeping, a characteristic often mentioned in the literature, combines her constant jotting in class and her thoughtful writing about each child outside of class time.

HUMANENESS encompasses such characteristics as respect for the individual, honesty, and warmth. The teacher shows her respect for the child by dealing honestly with him, presenting herself openly as a human being who has weaknesses and strengths and who recognizes that the other person is similarly human. Thus, the teacher is freed from the need to appear all-knowing or infallible, and the child is relieved of being in the position of inferiority by virtue of his age or station. The teacher can accept her role of authority--yet not be authoritarian--by earning respect and obedience based on her proven ability and readiness to help and lead.

Respect and honesty are vital ingredients of another component of the Open Education classroom, trust. Ideally, the classroom is

> a place of trust and openness, where interpersonal defensiveness has nearly disappeared, where expression of feeling is encouraged by others and accepted by the group. (Belanger et al., quoted in Rathbone, 1970, p.87).

It is through the teacher's encouragement and personal demonstration of honesty, openness, and respect for others that such a climate can flourish. These qualities apply to both the intellectual and the emotional life of the child; the teacher respects and responds honestly to the work the child does, as well as to the ways he thinks, feels, and acts. In such a

situation, where expression of emotions is encouraged as part of growth, an underlying basis of warmth is required in relationships, in order to support healthy growth and to provide the child with the reassuring and stabilizing sense that the people there accept and care for him.

SEEKING theme refers to the teacher's recognizing opportunities to promote personal growth and making use of them. Open Education assumes that the school experience contributes not only to the child's educational development, but to the teacher's as well; she too is the beneficiary of the learning milieu she works to provide. Seeking activities to promote continual personal growth is obviously an integral part of the teacher's interaction with the children as well as of her life outside the classroom. It of course applies to her participation in workshops, her use of advisors, her education-related conversations during lunchtime and after class, and her pursuit of information about the local community and about new materials and subject matter. But more than this, Open Education is an approach to teaching which stresses the necessity of the teacher's deep and active personal involvement in classroom change and growth. Seeking personal growth takes place right in the classroom and the children have much to contribute to it.

It seems likely that in this dimension the Open Education teacher differs little from the excellent traditional teacher. The significant point is that so many writers on Open Education and others who are actually involved in the approach lay such stress on the <u>necessity</u> of the characteristics which make up this theme. They seem to be saying that the teacher who is not seeking and making use of opportunities for personal and professional growth cannot succeed in and should not attempt Open Education.

SELF-PERCEPTION refers to the way the Open Education teacher views herself and her own role. Prescott (1970), in describing the fruition of the Integrated Day at her school, indicates the importance of the theme of self-perception on the part of the teacher; she feels that success with the Open Education approach is not possible with "a complete understanding on the part of the teacher of her changing role" (p. 16), and lists among the three "best supports" in her own growth as an Open Education teacher "the conviction within myself that what we were doing was right" (p. 5). Self-perceptions (along with the theme of assumptions) intertwines with the six other themes by supporting and sustaining the teachers actions in the classroom. The teacher's self-perception (who she is or who she is becoming) enables her to formualte and act upon her convictions about children and education--or, conversely, disables her from ever feeling convinced of her beliefs or from behaving in accord with what she professes to believe. Although traditional teachers may hold many of the same beliefs, it seems to be the willingness to attempt to carry the implications through in the classroom that characterizes the Open Education teacher.

ASSUMPTIONS is the belief which characterizes the teacher's orientation towards children, knowledge, and the process of learning. These assumptions include faith in children's innate curiosity, in their ability to sustain exploratory behavior, and in their capacity and right to make significant decisions about their learning. The assumptions define desirable conditions for learning: a warm and accepting emotional atmosphere, a dependable and honest source of authority, explicit and reasonable rules, and opportunity for direct interaction with rich and diverse materials. On the other hand, the assumptions put negative value on measurement by norms and conventional tests, the promotion of competition, and the use of threats or bargaining.

They reject distinctions between "subjects" or disciplines and between work and play, and they see knowledge as a personal synthesis that cannot be "transmitted."

An interesting thing about the Open Education movement is that it seems to grow out of many old truths about children and the nature of effective learning. The difference seems to be that Open Educators are determined to take seriously what many regard as cliches and to structure their classrooms, their instructional behaviors, and their relationships to children accordingly, instead of trying to rationalize what they were already doing and convince themselves ex post facto that their existing practices are consistent with such beliefs.

III. CONTENT ANALYSIS OF OPEN EDUCATION LITERATURE

BACKGROUND LITERATURE

Since publication of the "Plowden Report" (1967), a great deal has been written about Open Education. After seeking the advice of Education Development Center personnel and other authorities and collecting bibliographies, we drew up a list of the most frequently cited and important Open Education writings; we then attempted to cover the most informed and influential authors in each of the following categories: Practitioners, Advisors and Advocates, Observers and Reporters, and Researchers and Analysts.

In our survey, we decided to concentrate on the Open Education literature which addressed itself mainly to primary education, since the movement has been most widespread and has met with most approval at this level, and since there seems to be general agreement that many of the beliefs and practices of Open Education necessitate adaptation to the changing developmental needs of children as they mature. Further research in this field might well be addressed to the examination of the Open Education approach as it is extended into the upper elementary grades and into secondary school.

In addition to the literature on Open Education, we selected a number of other writings which we felt would provide valuable points of comparison; same, in fact, form the background from which Open Education evolved. Three pre-twentieth century writers were selected because of their historical importance in educational theory: Plato because of his enduring influence in education and because he provides a touchstone for comparison; Tolstoy and Rousseau because they were early thinkers who drew connections between an optimistic view of human nature and the role of philosophical assumptions

in the process of education. Like advocates of Open Education today, the latter two translated their philosophical beliefs into proposals for ways of teaching which are concerned with development of individual potential and based on trust in man's positive nature.

In the 20th century, we categorized three orientations which warrant comparison to Open Education. Progressive Education forms part of the background from which Open Education developed. Three representative Progressive Educators who span the years of this movement were selected for analysis: Dewey and Dewey, Rugg and Shumacker, and Sheehy represent ideological forerunners of Open Education, particularly with respect to early childhood education and the first few years of elementary school.

The other two categories, Popular Critics and Affective Orientation, are generally contemporary with Open Education, and the way in which their points of view mirror and differ from those of Open Education is reflected in this content analysis. Popular Critics are represented here by Kohl (whose book The Open Classroom is perhaps responsible for the currency of the term "Open Education") and Holt, considered by many to be chief spokesman for more responsive, humane schools. Teachers themselves, they fuse their criticism, beliefs, and recommendations to their personal classroom experience and interaction with other practicing teachers. Leonard, Dennison, Neill, and Borton were included, because they present proposals for, or descriptions of, what has been gathered under the term "Affective Education."

Design of the Analysis

Specific works of the selected twenty-eight authors or co-authors were examined for their attention to each of the eight themes described in the preceding chapter. In the discussion of the Open Educators' ratings, some of the variation of approach and emphasis which characterize this movement becomes more clear.

Each author was scored on a three-point scale, with a rating of 3 indicating heavy stress on a particular theme, a rating of 2 indicating moderate stress, and a rating of 1 indicating either negative stress or the absense of that theme. Plato's Republic, for example, is replete with philosophical assumptions which determine the program of education he describes. These assumptions, however, are for the most part antithetical to those espoused by Open Educators, and he is, therefore, rated 1 on the theme of ASSUMPTIONS.

In the interest of readability, this discussion of our content analysis of the literature consists of an interpretation of the ratings rather than the numerical ratings. It considers the personal orientation of individual authors and, where relevant, the constraints built into their particular work. The complete numerical ratings of each author, along with evidence for their validity and tables comparing both the different categories and the authors within each category, can be found in our original report (Walberg & Thomas, 1971).

Writers of Historical Importance

Plato: Our analysis is based on the relevant sections of Cornford's translation of The Republic, Plato's vision of an ideal society. Plato's views on education are developed in the context of a utopian society and reflect the experience and world view of his own society.

On every theme defined in this report, Plato received a negative rating. His assumptions and emphases are the antithesis of those of Open Education. Plato's educational ideas refer to the training of a specific, selected group of people. The future Guardians are to have particular functions in the ideal society, that is, to protect the state and to rule with wisdom. For this role, there is long training, starting in early childhood and continuing through the

age of fifty. Secondly, there is for Plato an ultimate end of all education: "insight into the harmonious order of the whole world" (Ed. note, p. 88). He assumes 1) a clearly defined and circumscribed training for a particular function in an apparently static society, and 2) an "ultimate end" for education in the form of a specific belief about the nature of the world. These assumptions contrast with the ideas about knowledge and the process of learning found to be characteristic of Open Education.

Other Platonic beliefs about education are rooted in these first assumptions. For the development of good and wise men and women, Plato believes that early education must be strictly regulated; only stories of certain content and moral standards should be allowed; only certain poetry, music, and drama, suitable in form and content for the moral development of children, should be permitted; and learning is sharply divided into subject matter areas.

Plato's scheme is authoritarian, with little scope for the development of individual differences--the making of real choices by children--the encouragement of a child's independence, initiative, or self-expression. As Socrates explains to Glaucon:

> --And the beginning, as you know, is always the most important part, especially in dealing with anything young and tender. That is the time when the character is being moulded and easily takes any impress one may wish to stamp on it.
> --Quite true.
> --Then shall we simply allow our children to listen to any stories that anyone happens to make up, and so receive into their minds ideas often the very opposite of those we shall think they ought to have when they are grown up?
> --No, certainly not.
> --It seems, then, our first business will be to supervise the making of fables and legends, rejecting all which are unsatisfactory; and we shall induce nurses and mothers to tell their children only those which we have approved, and to think more of moulding their souls with these stories (pp. 68-69).

Even direct interaction of a child with manipulative and environmental materials and with other children is not considered valuable.

Some passages, however, seem to suggest that the ideal society should allow each person to develop and work "according to his nature." Socrates reminds Glaucon,

> You remember how, when we first began to establish our commonwealth and several times since, we have laid down, as a universal principle, that everyone ought to perform the one function in the community for which his nature best suited him (p. 127).

But it is clear from the context that Plato has in mind social classes determined early and highly differentiated by function.

In drawing up "a scheme showing how, and to whom, these studies are to be allotted," (p. 256), Socrates cautions that education should not take the guise of compulsory instruction because for the

> --free man, there should be no element of slavery in learning. Enforced exercise does no harm to the body, but enforced learning will not stay in the mind. So avoid compulsion, and let your children's lessons take the form of play. This will also help you to see what they are naturally fitted for (p. 258).

Play would seem to suggest freedom, but it is clear from the context that it is only a means to a fixed end, what some educators now call a "hidden agenda." In short, Socrates' assumptions of a "universal principle," of people being selected for "one function," of a static nature of the individual in a static society all undercut the asserted freedom to learn.

With regard to Provisioning, Instruction, Diagnosis, and Evaluation, Plato does not advocate considering the individual child's feeling or reasoning processes. The implicit principle of the Socratic Dialogue suggests the teacher guiding the student to a previously decided upon answer through a pre-determined series of steps. This mode of instruction is far from a common search; the teacher appears to exercise full control; almost tricking the student into "discovery" of the truth. Furthermore, like most of the rest of the instruction, he assumes it is grounded totally in verbal exchange

and presentation of concepts, rather than providing for direct experience.

Plato assumes the teacher should be a good and wise person. Particular characteristics, similar to those which define our themes of Seeking and Self-Perception, are not mentioned; the teacher is nondescript. Even "Instruction" is usually described in the passive voice.

Rousseau: In Emile (trans. 1956), Rousseau assumes that human nature is essentially good and that each individual's learning proceeds idiosyncratically. His views are in general agreement with those which constitute the themes of Assumptions, Self-Perception, Humaneness, and Instruction.

Rousseau assumes that children possess a natural curiosity and goodness which is suppressed and fettered by the kind of society they live in and by the kind of education they receive. He believes that children learn best when they are involved in what they are learning and that their lessons should derive from their own exploratory interests. The teacher should facilitate learning by asking questions and directing attention to new areas, but the starting point should be the child's interests. Rousseau states explicitly that children should be respected as individuals and treated with kindness and courtesy. The teacher must restrain himself from intervening too soon and must be able to follow the child's lead, pointing him towards other sources of learning (besides the teacher).

The characteristics which make up Rousseau's concept of proper Instruction follow from these assumptions and mirror those found in Open Education. According to Rousseau, Instruction should be based upon direct experience in the world and not on verbal conceptualization which has no basis in concrete experience. Rousseau especially emphasized the world of nature as providing the appropriate setting and materials for learning. Instruction should be individualized; Rousseau's ideal in Emile is

portrayed as the tutor. The teacher should pay attention to what the child is understanding and wanting to learn. Instruction should not be divided into curricular or subject matter units, pre-selected as important by an authority. Rather learning should be of a piece, one question or interest leading to another.

Provisioning was not strongly stressed in Emile. Rousseau talks about the necessity for the teacher to provide materials for the child to choose from--to provide, for example, walks in the woods which would arouse and stimulate a child's curiosity. However, since his theory presupposes a one-to-one situation in a natural environment, rather than a classroom and a peer group, the provisioning--for interaction with other children, for activity areas and organization of classroom space, for profusion and diversity of books, equipment, and materials--is absent.

There is no emphasis in Emile on the themes of Diagnosis, Evaluation, and Seeking, at least as conceptualized by Open Educators. Evaluation seems to be accomplished implicitly over a long period of time, but Rousseau does not state explicitly the principles on which evaluation should be based. He does not talk about keeping notes about the child's development or collections of the child's products or creations; nor does he ponder over diagnostic information in a search for more effective ways of teaching. Similarly, the belief that the teacher would seek new materials and ways of helping the child to learn is only implicit at best.

Tolstoy: The ratings for Tolstoy are based on his "pedagogical articles" which appeared in the periodical, Yásnaya Polyána in 1862 and were collected in 1967 under the title On Education. Like Plato and Rousseau, Tolstoy wrote on education within a larger philosophical context. Unlike the two earlier writers, however, he directed his attention

specifically to the classroom situation and the practice of teaching children in a group, and his ideas were derived from his own experiences teaching children in this way.

Tolstoy's views generally agree with the characteristics of Open Education on the themes of Assumptions, Self-Perception, and Humaneness, and he gives much importance to these themes in his articles. Where Rousseau and Plato see education as serving specific "ultimate aims" for the society, Tolstoy envisions developing individuals in a changing society--where education should enable the individual to live creatively within a given society or to change that society. Tolstoy believes that education should help to nurture "the free and individual human spirit, which has its own sense of direction" (intro., ix). He emphasizes that students should not be compelled to study any particular lesson, that the teacher must experiment with many different methods of instruction until those which fit the students' needs develop, that the children must be allowed to find their own ways of learning, and that it is the children's interests which should form the starting point for instruction.

The teacher should perceive himself as an attempter, a continual learner.

> Every teacher of reading must...endeavor to find out the greatest number of methods, employing them as auxiliary means; must, by regarding every imperfection in the pupil's comprehension, not as a defect of the pupil, but as a defect of his own instruction, endeavor to develop in himself the ability of discovering new methods...as the business of teaching is an art, completeness and perfection are not obtainable, while development and perfectibility are endless (p. 58-59).

He trusts children's ability to operate effectively and feels comfortable about children exercising choice and about modifying plans.

Tolstoy believes that children should be free to work out their own conflicts with each other, and that they can do it better than when an adult intervenes. He shows this in his descriptions of incidents at his school. He gives serious attention to and shows respect for children's feelings. Above all, Tolstoy feels, in reaction to the predominant ethos of his day, that a happy spirit is not an enemy in school.

Tolstoy gives moderate attention to the other five Open Education themes. There is evidence that he would agree with the characteristics which define Seeking, but prime importance is not given to this theme. The teachers talk with each other each Sunday, compare notes about the previous week, and make tentative plans for the following week. Tolstoy also notes that from conversations between parents and teachers, the whole school was changed from the one he had began describing six months earlier.

Although he gives importance to the themes of Diagnosis, Evaluation, and Instruction and generally agrees with the Open Education definitions of them, there is not as much actual evidence of child initiative and attention to the pupil's individual needs in these areas as is given by Open Educators. The instructional context at Yásnaya Polyána appears to be one of a teacher-directed instruction and discussion, with children free to participate or not as they choose. "Subjects" are defined, and although there is a flexibility about scheduling, it seems to be based more upon group than individual decision. "Arithmetic can turn into geometry, and history into grammar," but the learning process does not really seem inter-disciplinary in the integrated sense described by Open Educators. Instruction is not based on a pupil's interaction with materials. It is the teacher's job to find ways of motivating his students, which he can do partly by his own enthusiasm for the subject he is teaching and partly by using a variety of "methods."

Regarding Evaluation, it is clear that Tolstoy reflected on what was happening in his school, and why it happened. The best evaluation of the children's learning, he says, comes not from tests:

> Moreover, I have convinced myself in practice that there is nothing more injurious to the development of the child than that kind of single questioning and the authoritative relation of teacher to pupils, arising from it. . . . They completely convinced me that the recitation of lessons and the examinations were a remnant of the superstitions of the medieval school, and that with the present order of things they were positively impossible and only injurious (pp. 294-295).

Proper evaluation comes through observing in the classroom over a long period.

> If an outsider wants to judge of the degree of that knowledge, let him live awhile with us and let him study the results of our knowledge and their applications to life (p. 296).

The teacher should submit himself as well as his students to evaluation. The teachers take notes during the week and meet to discuss plans. Whether these notes relate specifically to the development of each individual child is not clear. Throughout his articles Tolstoy reflects on what the children were learning and how they were learning; he evaluates himself and how his school is working.

Provisioning includes no mention of manipulative or environmental materials to which the children have free access; however, children of many ages and abilities learn together. They teach each other, and there appears to be much voluntary grouping and regrouping of children according to interests. Tolstoy also speaks of the necessity of a great variety of books for stimulating and sustaining interest in reading.

Progressive Educators*

Clearly, many of Open Education's antecedents lie in the Progressive movement. The strong showing is made by the three representatives

*We thank Professor Maurice J. Eash for conducting the content analysis of the Progressive Educators and drafting most of this section.

works selected for our analysis reflect this affinity. These authors, therefore, warrant extensive discussion here.

To speak of educational theory and practice and avoid John Dewey and his legion of followers is tantamount to teaching physics without atomic theory and evolution minus Darwin. Within the main themes of what became known as Progressive Education, there are differences and conflicting interpretations, to be sure, but as set out early in the 1900's, these themes have a ring of consistency which permits us to follow them through not only as a theory but in description of practice. The testing of ideas by their consequences meant that theory did not remain in the realm of the abstract but was quickly moved into the world of practice--hence, the activist stance of Progressives on many fronts has left a rich catalogue of practice available for analysis.

The three Progressives and their work selected for their analysis range over the past seventy years. Their careers were intertwined at Teachers College, Columbia University, and the influence of Dewey remains pronounced in the latest publication in our analysis. The book by Dewey used in this analysis, Schools of Tomorrow, published in 1915, contains a rich combination of descriptive practices of public schools, educational theory, and criticism. It is undoubtedly one of Dewey's clearest statements on Progressive Education, with salient illustrations drawn of public schools visited by his daughter, Evelyn.

While at Teachers College, Rugg worked in the Lincoln Laboratory School in developing curriculum and putting Progressive theory to test. The Child-Centered School was an early influential statement in disseminating Progressive Education ideas among the profession.

Emma Sheehy's textbook The Five's and Six's Go to School has been widely used in training teachers for early childhood education. In a manner similar to the Dewey and Rugg documents, she puts theory into practice--though the theory is more implicit--as she addresses her audience of teachers with detailed descriptions of program activities.

The themes of Progressive Education run through these three books. For brevity, only six are sketched.

1. Education, to be effective, must be compatible with the natural growth of the child. This root assumption, which Dewey admitted came from Rousseau, was at the heart of the Progressive theory and practice. Education was natural development and would occur rapidly if appropriate settings, equipped with physical and human resources, were provided. Distortion of the educative process came about when adult values and interests were imposed, and when arbitrary and abstract subject matter was substituted for experience.

2. Free movement, physical activity, and the affective component were as much a part of education as congnitive and intellectual processes. Therefore, activity units requiring construction, use of drama, and other physical expression were central to the curriculum. "The whole child," a much maligned concept, was to be involved in the school.

3. Wholeness was emphasized. The life of the school was not divorced from the life outside; moreover the quality of living in the present was seen as the best preparation for life in the future, and education and life experience were to be inseparable.

4. Learning by doing was a part of natural education and the primary method by which children learned; therefore, activity units--based on children's experiences--were developed, and teachers used subject matter content as it applied to the problems students encountered. Through the establishment of activities such as stores, students learned arithmetic and language.

5. Activities in which children engaged in school were not to be pursued capriciously, but were to reproduce selectively the conditions of real life within the boundaries of students' understanding. The school was to assist the child in moving toward the desired status of maturity and responsibility as an adult. In the setting of the activities and in their direction and evaluation, the teacher became a crucial figure.

6. Within the school there must be concern for children making choices and evaluating consequences. These were essential conditions for a free citizenry. There was a connection between education and the development of democratic values, with the school acting as an agency for the society.

These themes, with variations, have a long history in their evolution and reflect a myriad of practices. Though they sometimes proved difficult to carry out in practice, they have been persistent. Regardless of the label they wear, the role of the teacher is paramount. Since they are so heavily dependent upon the setting of an educational environment, the teacher becomes a significant variable in establishing the conditions where children can operate. In the same way, weaknesses of teachers, lack of consistent theory, and limitations of personal and professional resources have contributed to the perversion of these main themes and the challenge of their usefulness.

Open Education obviously has historical roots in Progressive Education. An ignorance of its antecedent foundations closes it off from a knowledge of the fatal practices which plagued progressive education and placed it in disrepute for a number of decades. Rathbone (1970) warns wisely: "an understanding of both the similarities and the differences between Open Education and the Progressive movement might alert American proponents to potential resistances as well as predict the most receptive groups of parents and schools" (1970, p. 163). Barth sees Progressivism and Open Education as differing along a few important lines.

> Many have even called open education a neoprogressive movement (although its emphasis on the cognitive development of the child, upon a rich availability of materials, and upon the complex, difficult role of the teacher, distinguish one from the other) (1970, p. ix).

Popular Critics

Holt: John Holt's two books, How Children Fail (1964) and How Children Learn (1967), presented a more difficult rating task. The former is composed of notes and anecdotes written while Holt was teaching and observing in an

elementary school between 1958 and 1961. The book contains reflections on the teaching-learning process with individual children, criticism of the organization of contemporary schools, and questions with implications for how the situation should be changed. Although Holt does mention the Leicestershire schools, he does not make explicit or detailed recommendation for how a school or classroom should be organized to facilitate the real, as distinct from the apparent learning he thinks schools should foster.

In How Children Learn, Holt "tries to describe children--in a few cases adults--using their minds well, learning boldly and effectively" (forward, p.viii). It, too, is anecdotal in form and deals primarily with pre-school children. The book disappoints expectations suggested by its title, which complements that of the earlier book, because it does not address itself to the issues and questions raised in that book of how schools should and could better facilitate learning; thus, there is little in the book which is relevant to the Open Education themes presented in this report, and the ratings for Holt are therefore based primarily on How Children Fail.

Holt gave much importance to the themes of Diagnosis, Evaluation, Humaneness, and Assumptions and his views generally agree with our statements defining these themes. Holt ponders over why a specific child makes a certain error or rejects an activity. He devotes five pages to a description and careful explanation of how a child uses her materials to do her own correcting, not needing or wanting a teacher to point out her errors for her (1967, pp. 98-103). The form of his books reflects a continuing jotting and evaluation of what was going on in the classroom or in learning activities.

In several places, Holt expresses strong feelings for reflective evaluation and against testing in the traditional sense for evaluation purposes, because he believes both that tests do not show what the children know, engender fear, and block learning. His reports show attentive observation of what particular children are doing--for example working with Cuisenaire rods--both to diagnose what the child knows and can do, and to estimate why the child has made a particular mistake or is stumped at a particular point.

Compared to his especially strong emphasis on Diagnosis and Evaluation, the other two emphasized themes seem somewhat weaker. On Humaneness, Holt underlines the crucial role that he sees the teacher's sincere respect for the children plays in their learning. Holt's Assumptions correspond to those stated in the Open Education characteristics, for example that there is no set body of knowledge that should be "transmitted" in schools:

> The notion of a curriculum, an essential body of knowledge, would be absurd even if children remembered everything we "taught" them. We don't and can't agree on what knowledge is essential (p.175).

or that children should learn at their own rate from their own concrete experiences:

> What we ought to do is use these materials to enable children to make for themselves, out of their own experience and discoveries, a solid and growing understanding of the ways in which numbers and operations of arithmetic work. Our aim must be to build soundly and if this means that we must build more slowly, so be it....The work of the children themselves will tell us (p. 120, 1964).

Holt does not treat Seeking and Self-Perception as strongly. Although his views in general coincide with those defined in this report, there is not as much specific attention and importance given to these aspects of the teacher's role. From references to walks outside the school, conversations with parents, and occasional mention of colleagues, it is apparent that Holt as a teacher sought opportunities for growth in the ways defined

in this report. For Holt, it seems implicit that the self-perception of the good teacher includes trust that the children can learn independently, an ability to restrain himself from interfering out of his own needs rather than the child's, and a sense of perceiving the child as a continual learner. Explicitly, however, these characteristics are not discussed.

His treatment of the themes Instruction and Provisioning is also moderate; his descriptions only coincide with some of the characteristics which define these themes. For example, despite the strong emphasis on the diagnostic aspect of Instruction, encouragement of real choice and independence and the interdisciplinary nature of learning are less apparent in his descriptions. The classroom problems and tasks which Holt describes appear to be teacher-initiated. Although there are many references to teaching, the whole group is apparently doing generally the same thing at the same time. With respect to Provisioning, Holt mentions the use of some manipulative materials, but does not stress their importance or range, nor does he discuss other kinds of materials, or the children voluntarily grouping and regrouping, or many activities going on simultaneously, or flexible scheduling.

Kohl: The ratings for Herbert Kohl are based on Thirty-six Children (1967) and The Open Classroom (1969). The first book describes a teaching experience in a class of American sixth-grade children, while the latter is "a handbook for teachers who want to work in an open environment" (p. 15). In it, Kohl gives attention and emphasis to each of the eight themes defined in this report. He is concerned with how change can come about as well as

the direction that the change should take. His attention is to how teachers can change their classrooms and themselves. The Open Classroom anticipates their problems and frustrations and presents possibilities and strategies for recognizing and working through them.

Consistent with his interest in the teacher's change, his work shows much emphasis on Self-Perception and Seeking. He sees a need for teachers to build trust in themselves and in the children, and he encourages and assists them to get in touch with colleagues and parents about what they are doing.

Particular sections of this book are devoted to the theme of Evaluation. Kohl makes explicit his lack of faith in tests and his belief that note-taking and observation of each child and the quality of his particular work is crucial to evaluation. Further he sees evaluation as necessitating reflection as well as data-collection. And from such thoughtful reflection arises the instruction the teacher decides upon for each child.

> Evaluating student work calls upon the teacher to make critical judgments...it is one thing to say a word is spelled incorrectly or an addition is wrong, and another to understand why a particular child made a particular mistake the moment it was made. The latter requires considerable perception and judgment, and can more effectively help a student to learn than a mere cross or a zero (1969, p. 109).

The necessity for openness, respect, trust, and warmth in relations with the children and in the atmosphere of the classroom as a whole runs through both books. That the teacher should be a real person with feelings and needs is especially stressed. He should minimize those classroom practices which set him up as privileged. Kohl's ideal teacher hangs his coat among those of his students, turning "the teacher's closet" over to the class for storage of materials.

The theme of Instruction was somewhat difficult to rate for Kohl, partly because his focus of attention is not primary education; thus, the characteristics pertaining to this theme did not seem relevant at first glance. Kohl gives importance and emphasis to Instruction per se, and his vision of the nature of Instruction stresses the characteristics pertaining to becoming diagnostically involved with each child so as to extend the child's interests and activities--enabling a class to engage in several different activities simultaneously in small self-selected groupings. This crosses traditional subject matter boundaries *and provides students with ample materials.* "One cannot ask pupils to be free or make choices in a vacuum. There is no limit to what can be brought to class to enrich the environment" (1969, p. 99). Although Diagnosis receives less emphasis compared to the other seven themes, Kohl does recognize its importance to Instruction and stresses in particular the role of teacher as acute and constant observer.

> To plan intelligently, the teacher must observe the class and assess what is happening: who is interested in what, who isn't, what directions the students are moving in . . . . Planning in a non-authoritarian classroom must be based on the possibility of abrupt changes (1969, p.59).

Affective Orientation

Affective educators, according to Terry Borton (1970), are developing a new field which aims at "balancing the traditional emphasis on skills and cognitive information with an explicit attention to the important areas of feelings, values, and interpersonal behavior" (p. 135). In his book, Reach, Touch, and Teach, Borton outlines a "process" curriculum, oriented towards high school students, but applicable to younger children as well. Through his survey of varied approaches suggested by affective educators,

it becomes clear that there is no one theoretical foundation on which all affective educators agree; it is the aim which links them together; the methods are eclectic.

Affective education includes a whole range of people from those who reflect Gestalt psychology and the contributions and influence of Esalen Institute to people from the Humanities. Earlier "affective educators" came from other psychological approaches, e.g. Neill's background is Freudian. In addition to the four representatives selected for this analysis, many others have entered this field. For example, noting that "increasing numbers of states are mandating some form of classroom instruction in mental health," Time magazine reports on a new series of textbooks which are designed to "help children cope with their feelings" (Time, Feb. 22, 1971, p. 74). Most such courses and books, such as those by Borton and by William Glasser (1969) take for granted a traditional classroom arrangement, with a teacher conducting lessons with the class as a whole unit, and they are obviously not conceived with Open Education in mind, although an Open Education teacher could decide to call the class together for activities such as those they outline.

Neill. Dennison (1969) and Neill (1960) are trained therapists who have devoted themselves to educating children. Erich Fromm describes A.S. Neill in the introduction to Summerhill as "an experimenter and an observer."

> He mixes education with therapy, but for him therapy is not a separate matter to solve some special "problems," but simply the process of demonstrating to the child that life is there to be grasped, and not to run away from (pp. xv-xvi).

The books of these two men which we selected for analysis concentrate on the education of children in a school setting and, as such, seemed most likely to provide bases for comparison to Open Education. Both envision

school as the locus for the regeneration (or refuge) of man from a society destructive to his best impulses.

> It will not be an easy matter to bring our beserk technocracy under control, but we <u>can</u> control the environment of the schools. It is a relatively small environment and has always been structured by deliberation. If, as parents, we were to take as our concern not the instruction of our children, but the lives of our children, we would find that our schools could be used in a powerful regenerative way. Against all that is shoddy and violent and treacherous and emotionally impoverished in American life, we might propose conventions which were rational and straightforward, rich both in feeling and thought, and which treated individuals with a respect we do little more at present than proclaim from our public rostrums. We might cease thinking of school as a place, and learn to believe that it is basically relationships: between children and adults, adults and adults, children and other children. (Dennison, 1969, pp. 6-7).

Neill, whose major tenet is adherence to a belief in the child's right to freedom of choice, presents an approach least like that of Open Education. His frame of reference (Assumptions and Self-Perception of the teacher) is, however, very similar. These two themes as well as Humaneness are strongly stressed. His treatment of practices, however, with the exception of Humaneness, differs considerably. His is a more permissive, laissez faire approach; the teacher in his scheme appears to be less active than that expected in Open Education. In fact little is said of the instruction of students other than that they have a choice of whether to attend classes. Although Evaluation and Provisioning receive moderate treatment in a manner consistent with the views of Open Education, attention to Diagnosis, Instruction, and Seeking is almost entirely absent. In addition, lessons or classes appear to be conducted along traditional lines, i.e., whole group instruction in various disciplines.

<u>Leonard</u>. George Leonard (1968) represents a rather different "Affective" orientation from the other three authors considered here. This

difference is reflected in his high rating on Provisioning and lower ratings on Humaneness and Self-Perception. He sees in technology great promise for the enrichment of man; in Leonard's book, technology is servant to man's ecstacy rather than agent of depersonalization. Only he, among this group, lays heavy stress on the provisioning of his envisioned ideal school of the future, and that provisioning includes probably more "hardware" than Open Educators would be comfortable with. Echoes of the educational experiences offered by sensitivity and personal awareness centers like Esalen and of childrearing and socialization practices in primitive cultures abound in this book. And through it all runs confidence in man's potential for joy and his belief in the necessity of it in order to be fully human.

> Now modern science and technology seem to be preparing a situation where the successful control of practical matters and the attainment of ecstasy can safely coexist; where each reinforces the other; and quite possibly, where neither can long exist <u>without</u> the other (p. 17).

None of the other Affective writers studied gave strong emphasis to the theme of Provisioning. Although all acknowledged its role in learning, they saw it as clearly secondary to the interpersonal relationship between teacher and child. This relative duality is reflected in the ratings of the theme of Humaneness. Here, and as would be expected of the Affective orientation, the other three authors showed great emphasis, whereas Leonard gave only moderate emphasis; Leonard conceives of the individual as somewhat less needful of the emotional support of teachers. While he takes for granted a humane atmosphere in his ideal school, he does not dwell upon it, and his students of the future appear far more capable of satisfying their emotional needs through their own resources and through skills

they learn. Opportunities for practice in techniques of self-awareness and such activities as role playing are present, but the characteristics which make up Open Education's theme of Humaneness seem somehow slightly irrelevant. Leonard seems to assume that if the child is more self-sufficient, the humaneness of the teacher is not so crucial.

In general, the teacher as <u>person</u> fades into the background in this book, and this lack of emphasis is reflected in lower ratings on Seeking and Self-Perception; the teacher as <u>teacher</u> remains active, however. Leonard gives strong emphasis to the themes not only of Provisioning, but also of Diagnosis, Instruction, and Evaluation. He also stresses Assumptions which are consistent with those held by Open Educators.

<u>Dennison</u>. Of all these authors, George Dennison most closely reflects the Open Education approach. On seven of the eight themes his book showed strong emphasis. In practice, the slight difference indicated by his lesser emphasis on Provisioning alone may be related to a difference in ultimate priorities. Although Dennison is greatly concerned with the child's intellectual learning and development of skills (His descriptions of teaching José to read are fascinating.), one might legitmately assume from reading his book that when "either-or" choices must be made, emotional growth takes precedence for him over cognitive growth. He would hold such a dichotomy false and misleading. But to the extent that emotional growth is facilitated by richness of interpersonal relationships and to the extent that intellectual growth is based upon interaction with the material environment uninterpreted by a sensitive adult, some conflict in allocation of resources comes into play. Dennison's <u>First Street School</u> had the "luxurious intimacy" of smallness of size (twenty-three students)

and a very low pupil/teacher ratio (three full-time, one part-time and several special teachers). Provisioning--in the form of providing adults--had highest priority and greatest importance. This view differs somewhat from the Open Education theme.

Borton. Reach, Touch, and Teach by Tony Borton refers primarily to high school students; it argues for more "affective" education in our schools. Borton surveys suggestions of other educators for what might constitute an education which would help both students and teachers become more in touch with their own and each other's feelings, and he also offers his own suggestions for curricular modifications and innovations. Although he tried to avoid making "feelings" become simply another distinct subject matter, he does offer "lessons" specifically designed to help students and teachers explore and recognize their emotions.

His approach results in his giving moderate emphasis to the themes of Instruction, Provisioning, and Diagnosis. Situations are set up to help students become aware of and work with their own personal feelings and to help teachers to attend to these feelings. Generally the context is one of a whole-class lesson within a scheduled time period, with the "materials" being one's own elicited feelings. Flexibility of time, space, activities, and grouping is not emphasized, nor to a large extent allowed for. Opportunity for students to take personal responsibility for making significant choices about their own learning is not provided for. Although the child as an individual is recognized as important, Diagnosis on an individualized basis with close attention to each child's thought processes, needs, and interests--as revealed through his activities, choices, errors, fantasy, etc.--is not specifically mentioned. Evaluation received low rating,

because it is not discussed. His attention to the themes of Humaneness, Seeking, Self-Perception, and Assumptions is generally consistent with that of the Open Education writers and, like Dennison, he, therefore, is rated highly on these four themes.

None of these writers deals exclusively with early elementary school children. This difference, as well as their affective orientation, may have something to do with their emphases. All but Borton consider education outside an existing public school system for children ranging in age from early childhood into their teens, but Borton's book primarily considers public high school students.

OPEN EDUCATION LITERATURE

Open education authors have been grouped according to their particular involvement with Open Education. This grouping facilitates comparison between those writers of similar orientation and among differing types of orientations. The four categories of writers concerned specifically with the study of Open Education will be examined first in order to indicate the extent to which each represents the eight themes in his work.

Analysts/Researchers. Since the eight themes derive from the ten proposed by Bussis and Chittenden (1970), it is not surprising that analysis of their report resulted in high rankings. The Bussis and Chittenden report represents the conclusions of researchers who have most closely examined the thinking and practices of a specific group of Open Educators--the participants in EDC's Follow Through Program, especially its advisors. They tapped the philosophy and experiences of a group of Open Educators who, working together and training together, have made significant contributions to the field.

The two doctoral dissertations, Barth (1970) and Rathbone (1970), represent the most ambitious efforts to examine Open Education that we found. Both authors studied all available material, visited many British "informal" or "integrated day" classrooms, conducted extensive interviews, and carried on correspondence with proponents of Open Education.

In general, their wider surveys diverge little from the emphases Bussis and Chittenden found common to the EDC advisors.

Both Barth and Rathbone seem able to talk about an ideal, based upon consensus of beliefs, hopes, and the best practices. Barth devotes the first sixty pages of his work to the assumptions he finds underlying the

work of Open Educators. His second chapter explores in detail the pedagogy. The third is primarily a narrative in which he contrasts this model with a thorough account of his difficulties in attempting to implement his ideals.

Rathbone compiled a comprehensive set of materials dealing with Open Education and its related assumptions. He based his analytic description of the movement on examination of these works and on his own observation. He shows how Open Education ideally works by describing its organizational patterns and its implicit ideology. The second half of his dissertation describes the implications of the educational approach for teacher education.

As might be expected, these two authors who attempted a comprehensive examination of this movement treated the eight themes thoroughly. Their works could have provided a quotation for almost every characteristic. Barth stressed seven themes very strongly; only Seeking received less emphasis relative to the others. Perhaps his study led him to see it as a less important aspect of these teachers. In addition, his narrative suggests that the exigencies of coping with the discouraging year of attempting to initiate and administer an Open Education program left him and his teachers little time, desire, or energy to seek much more than rest or refuge. Nevertheless, implicit in his recital of his "New Harbor" adventure in implementation is a good deal of Seeking behavior as defined by the characteristics we have listed.

Rathbone also places strong emphasis upon seven of the eight themes. His less emphasized theme, Evaluation, probably results from some misgivings he holds about the Open Educators' avoidance of traditional forms

of evaluation and mistrust of "hard research." As he states,

> The real challenge posed by Open Education's attitude towards evaluation, or course, is an overall questioning of traditional evaluatory techniques. For when proponents of Open Education do set down the questions they would most like answered, the list does not lend itself to any simple or established system of measurement (p. 166).

Then later,

> Until /hard research/ is available, one can only rely on one's subjective judgement--tempered by thoughtful reflection and a careful reading of the available literature to determine the appropriateness of Open Education for any particular child (p. 168).

Reporters/Observers. It is interesting to note that the four sources examined as significant reporters on Open Education were unanimous in their heavy emphasis on the themes of Provisioning, Instruction, and Assumptions. Self-Perception, certainly a rather personal dimension and one to which a classroom visitor is not likely to have access, is least emphasized on the average. Yet despite this limitation, this theme is still moderately stressed.

Relative to the lengthy "Plowden Report" (1967) and Silberman volume (1970), and even the Blackie paperback (1967), Featherstone's series of articles on British Infant Schools is very short. He skims Evaluation, Humaneness, and Seeking. More than the other reporters, however, he was evidently struck by the teachers' confidence in children's ability to learn through this structure and emphasized the need for such conviction. He alone, among the reporters, gives strong stress to the theme of Self-Perception.

> The external motions teachers go through in the schools matter less than what the teachers are and what they think. An organizational change--the free day, for example, or simply rearranging classroom space--is unlikely to make much difference unless teachers really believe that in a rich environment young children can learn a great deal by themselves and that most often their own choices reflect their needs (p. 7).

He viewed the teacher's internal frame of reference as a very important ingredient to successful open teaching. His lesser attention to the other three themes could be a function of his not having found them particularly important, or it could be a matter of journalistic necessity of making a choice where space is limited.

Although all these authors except Silberman are reporting their observation of British practices only, Silberman's treatment of these themes does not differ from theirs despite his inclusion of American efforts in North Dakota, Philadelphia, and elsewhere. Indeed, Crisis in the Classroom and Blackie's Inside the Primary School (by retired Chief Inspector of Primary Schools of thirty-three years experience in the Inspectorate) resulted in identical ratings. They both gave strong emphasis to all themes save Self-Perception and Diagnosis. They seem to assume the importance of Diagnosis but do not stress it as much as other themes or as do other writers. They do not consider the positive role of errors and fantasy in helping a teacher to know how to help a child in his learning. Nor do they dwell on the teacher's responsibility to diagnose each child constantly through involved observation. But they do call attention to the teacher's job of attending to children as individuals whose needs and abilities develop at different times.

> And teachers make it clear that they want to know what the children are doing, what they are thinking, how they feel, and so on (Silberman, 1970, p. 241).

> To decide just when a child is ready to learn something new requires skill and experience (Blackie, 1967, p. 38).

Humaneness is the other theme which received only moderate emphasis in two of these works. Featherstone's lack of emphasis is commented upon above. One cannot help wondering whether a reason for the lesser emphasis

on Humaneness in the Plowden Report is in part the result of the inevitable impersonality of a government report. Although the Report gives attention to the need to view children as individuals and to attend to the affective aspects of their school experience, this theme receives less attention compared to others.

Advisors/Advocates. Ratings of Advisors/Advocates may be somewhat misleading because each of these authors is represented by short works written for a specific audience and aimed at dealing with a single aspect of this approach to teaching. For example, Armington's paper (1968) is a proposal to the United States government for EDC's Follow Through Program. In it he stresses the role of the advisor, which constituted the core of EDC's innovative efforts in assisting teachers to adopt an Open Education approach to teaching. He sees advisors as a crucial part of the success of the Open Education approach and bases his conception of them upon the role of the advisors in Leicestershire. His brief paper includes a clear and concise outline of the key elements of the open classroom; hence the high ratings for seven of the eight themes. He does not, however, include any mention of Evaluation. Although this omission may reflect an absence of concern for describing appropriate forms of evaluation, it is also possible that in so short and specific a piece, a less valued theme falls by the wayside.

Hawkins (1967) is clearly a case of an author focusing on a single central idea. He is writing a philosophic statement about his concept of the core of teaching and learning: "the relationship between the teacher and the child and a third thing . . . that has to be there and that completes the triangle." (p. 1). Open Educators see this paper as a key statement,

central to an understanding of instruction, although it was not intended as a paper on Open Education. Hawkins does not try to deal with more than one, albeit crucial, aspect of the teacher's performance. Nevertheless, in discussing it, he does include strong emphasis on half of the themes. These, the themes most closely tied to the teaching-learning relationship he is considering, are Provisioning, Diagnosis, Instruction, and Assumptions. In addition he touches on Humaneness.

One of Yeoman's pamphlets, The Wellsprings of Teaching (1969), describes a summer workshop for teachers preparing to teach according to the practices and beliefs of the "integrated day." The other is to interest educators in the integrated day as an approach to primary education. Both are brief and include practical information such as lists of suggested materials and equipment and descriptions of the day-to-day programming of the workshop. The Wellsprings of Teaching is the source of high ratings on the themes of Seeking, Self-Perception, and Assumptions. Both booklets heavily stress Provisioning and Instruction.

In summary, these ratings probably reflect only in part the estimate of the nature and importance of each of these eight themes by those authors considered. Despite these limitations and possible distortions, however, these authors still unanimously stress the themes of Provisioning, Instruction, and Assumptions, as they are presented in this report. Evaluation receives least attention from the Advisors/Advocates.

Practitioners. The practitioners strongly agreed on the importance of the theme of Instruction. As noted earlier, a distinctive aspect of the Open Education approach is the concept of an active teacher. The open classroom is conceived of as teacher-centered and child-centered;

both are crucial to instruction. The touchstone of this concept is Hawkins' formula: "I, thou, it." These practitioners unanimously stress and elucidate just what open teaching means for them in terms of how they go about helping children to learn. This responsibility includes sensitive responding to the needs, interests, and readiness of each child as an individual and respect for his wishes and capacity for intelligent decision making. Permissiveness or pure nurturance is not to be found in the mode of instruction these teachers practice. Except in Cazden's accounts, humaneness is another theme on which these practitioners place very high stress. Cazden, based on her second visit to British informal classrooms, concentrates on methods and approaches to language instruction in a paper which it is both analysis and catalogue (1970). In it, the first four themes are certainly present, as are Seeking and Assumptions. Humaneness and Self-Perception were perhaps of less interest to her since she concentrated on language acquisition and reading development. The low rating on Humaneness is based upon the almost total absence of this theme in the interview of the headmistress of Gordonbrock school (1969). The other themes all receive treatment.

Brown and Precious (1969), heads of associated infant and junior schools, describe the ways in which the "integrated day" has been interpreted in practice in their schools. Their book reads like the primer of Open Education. It combines bold and rather absolute assertions with details, descriptions, even diagrams, which are both evocative and practical. All eight themes are emphasized; hardly any characteristic goes unexpressed.

Similarly, Prescott and Raoul (1970), Americans who were trained by educators from Leicestershire, emphasize each of the eight themes as they are defined in this report.

Howard, too, has been engaged over the past several years in the development of Open Education in his school. While Mrs. Prescott and Miss Raoul have been working with a limited number of classrooms in a private school, he has been an administrator in a city public school system. The children of his school, however, at the program's inception, were often poor and accustomed to years of neglect and inadequate education which has led to community resentment and desperation.

> In the formative months of the Boardman School program, . . . it became evident that something had to be done about the deplorable condition of the school's image (p. 8).

Which of these differences or combination of differences account for the relatively lower emphasis he places on the themes of Diagnosis, Evaluation, Seeking, and Self-Perception can only be hazarded. His conception of the other four themes, Provisioning, Instruction, Humaneness, and Assumptions agrees with that presented in this report, and he stresses their importance.

The other two authors we selected for analysis as practitioners are less clearly a part of this educational movement (at least at the time of writing their books). Marshall and Richardson are unique and exceptional teachers who, working on their own, in the relative isolation of "one room" country schools developed their own styles and convictions. They resemble Sylvia Ashton-Warner (1963) or Margaret Langdon (1961) more than practitioners who have worked in the context of systems. Mrs. Marshall taught for eighteen years in a village which "was really too rural and off the map to attract many suitable candidates" (p. 13); Richardson for twelve years in a little school on the northern tip of New Zealand. Their books relate their growth as teachers, the experiences they and their children shared, and reveal the underlying convictions which grew in them as they taught.

Mrs. Marshall especially stresses the themes of Instruction, Humaneness and Seeking. She treats with less emphasis Provisioning, Diagnosis, Self-Perception, and Assumptions in describing herself, her teaching, and the children with whom she worked. Richardson's book is rated highly on five themes. He gives relatively less emphasis to Provisioning, Diagnosis, and Seeking. These somewhat lower ratings on Provisioning perhaps reflect the isolation of the two teachers' schools from sources of materials other than what the environment provided and what a meager "supplies allowance" could purchase from a limited provincial market or school supplies' list. Similarly Richardson had little opportunity for courses, colleagues, or advisors from which to seek opportunities for growth. Both teachers made extensive use of the natural resources of their immediate surroundings. Outings were very frequent; children studied local history first-hand through investigation and interviewing. Both found art to be the natural source from which their children's learning developed. In their vision and practice of Instruction, art is integral--to stimulate and reinforce children's learning.

These teachers seem to be a special breed, and they differ somewhat from practitioners who are a conscious part of the Open Education approach.

Summary

Overall, those writing about Open Education are unanimous in strongly emphasizing the theme of Instruction as it is defined in this report: The teacher has an active role in guiding and extending children's learning, based upon individual attention and involvement with the child and upon encouraging children's independence and based upon exercise of real choice within a framework of long term goals. In addition, of the sixteen authors or co-authors

analyzed, fourteen similarly stressed the theme of Provisioning for Learning. In order for children to share with the teacher the central role in their own instruction, they must be provided with the appropriate range and richness of materials and with conditions (of grouping, timing, emotional atmosphere) which maximize their ability to learn at their own rate and in their own ways. Fourteen of the sixteen rated highly on Assumptions also. Bussis and Chittenden stressed the importance of this theme but did not describe it explicitly. Mrs. Marshall seemed to understand and agree with the Open Education assumptions described in this report, but she neither spelled them out nor particularly stressed them. Diagnosis, Seeking, and Humaneness all receive strong emphasis in this literature. In general, the authors agree upon the importance of these three qualities of the teacher, but they rate slightly lower than Instruction, Provisioning. and Assumptions in importance. The theme of Evaluation receives least attention overall in this literature, a point which is reflected no doubt in the accusations of "irresponsibility" leveled against this movement by its critics.

OVERALL COMPARISON

Table 1 presents a summary of this content analysis arranged according to each individual author's mean score on all eight themes and the mean of all the authors in each group. Not surprisingly, the two groups of writers who set themselves the task of describing Open Education have the highest overall ratings (Analysts/Researchers and Reporters/Observers). The next highest two groups are Popular Critics and Practitioners. It is interesting to note that the two writers grouped under Popular Critics have been, in addition, practitioners and base their criticisms of and comments on contemporary education on their own experiences

and efforts. The Progressive Educators are only slightly lower than these two groups in their agreement and emphasis of these eight themes. The means of the Affective Orientation selections and of the Advisor/Advocates fall almost exactly half way between a 2 and a 3 rating. The lowest rating of any group analysed here belongs to the Writers of Historical Importance. Here one should notice, however, the gradually rising ratings of the three selected authors, from Plato's "Closed Education" through Rousseau to Tolstoy. This historical trend continues in the Progressives' relatively high rating.

A comparison among the groups of authors based on the mean scores for each of the themes (Table 2) indicates more specific areas of similarity and difference between Open Education authors and those of other orientations. Here it can be seen that Open Educators stress Provisioning and Diagnosis more strongly than any other group save the Progessives. Open Educators and Progressives alone unanimously emphasize the theme of Instruction as it is defined in this report. Only the Popular Critics pay more attention to the theme of Evaluation than the Open Educators, whereas Humaneness is stressed more strongly by three of the other groups: the Progressives, the Popular Critics, and the Affective educators. Seeking is the only theme on which the Open Education authors averaged higher than all other groups. On Self-Perception, Open Education falls right in the middle, above the historical writers and the progressives but below the two contemporary groups. Despite the overall high mean of Open Education on the theme of Assumptions, all of the other groups except the historical writers were even higher.

Looking at the Progressive Educators alone in comparison to those writing about Open Education, one notes that they treat the themes of Provisioning, Diagnosis, Humaneness, and Assumptions more thoroughly. Both groups give very strong attention to the theme of Instruction. The Progressive literature shows less attention or agreement on the themes of Evaluation, Seeking, and Self-Perception than does Open Education.

A similar comparison between the writers grouped under Affective Orientation and the Open Education writers reveals that Affective educators give relatively more importance and emphasis to the themes of Self-Perception and Humaneness and, as a group, less attention to the themes of Provisioning, Diagnosis, Instruction, Evaluation, and Seeking. Both groups stress Assumptions, although the Open Education literature shows slightly less emphasis in this area.

TABLE I

A SUMMARY OF A CONTENT ANALYSIS
BY INDIVIDUAL AND GROUP

ANALYSTS/RESEARCHERS		WRITERS OF HISTORICAL IMPORTANCE	
Bussis-Chittenden (1970)	2.75	Plato (1945)	1.00
Barth (1970)	2.88	Rousseau (1956)	2.12
Rathbone (1970)	2.88	Tolstoy (1967)	2.38
Overall	2.83	Overall	1.83
REPORTERS/OBSERVERS		**PROGRESSIVE EDUCATORS**	
Plowden (1967)	2.75	Dewey (1915)	2.50
Blackie (1967)	2.75	Rugg & Shumacker (1928)	2.50
Featherstone (1967)	2.62	Sheehy (1954)	2.75
Silberman (1970)	2.75		
Overall	2.72	Overall	2.58
ADVISORS/ADVOCATES		**POPULAR CRITICS**	
Armington (1968)	2.75	Holt (1964, 1967)	2.50
Hawkins (1967)	2.12	Kohl (1967, 1969)	2.88
Yeomans (1969 a,b)	2.50		
Overall	2.47	Overall	2.69
PRACTITIONERS		**AFFECTIVE ORIENTATION**	
Cazden (1969, 1971)	2.62	Neill (1960)	2.00
Brown & Precious (1969)	3.00	Leonard (1968)	2.62
Prescott & Raoul (1970)	3.00	Dennison (1969)	2.87
Howard (1968, 1971)	2.50	Borton (1970)	2.38
Richardson (1964)	2.62		
Marshall (1966)	2.25		
Overall	2.66	Overall	2.47

TABLE 2

A SUMMARY OF A CONTENT ANALYSIS
BY THEME AND GROUP

	Analysts Researchers	Reporters/ Observers	Advisors/ Advocates	Practitioners
Provisioning for Learning	3.00	3.00	3.00	2.66
Diagnosis of Learning Events	3.00	2.50	2.66	2.50
Instruction--Guidance and Extension of Learning	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00
Reflective Evaluation of Diagnostic Information	2.66	2.75	1.33	2.50
Humaneness--Respect, Openness, and Warmth	3.00	2.50	2.00	2.66
Seeking Opportunities to Promote Growth	2.66	2.75	2.33	2.66
Self-Perception of the Teacher	2.66	2.25	2.33	2.50
Assumptions--Ideas about Children and the Process of Learning	2.66	3.00	3.00	2.83

TABLE 2 (cont.)

	Open Education Overall Means*	Writers of Historical Importance	Progressive Educators	Popular Critics	Affective Orientation
Provisioning for Learning	2.88	1.66	3.00	2.50	2.25
Diagnosis of Learning Events	2.63	1.33	3.00	2.50	2.25
Instruction--Guidance and Extension of Learning	3.00	2.00	3.00	2.50	2.25
Reflective Evaluation of Diagnostic Information	2.38	1.33	2.00	3.00	2.25
Humaneness--Respect, Openness, and Warmth	2.56	2.33	3.00	3.00	2.75
Seeking Opportunities to Promote Growth	2.63	1.33	1.33	2.50	2.25
Self-Perception of the Teacher	2.44	2.33	2.33	2.50	2.75
Assumptions--Ideas about Children and the Process of Learning	2.88	2.33	3.00	3.00	3.00

*These means represent the average of all sixteen authors and co-authors.

IV. DEVELOPMENT OF A LIST OF PEDAGOGICAL CHARACTERISTICS

An early step in the content analysis was to select quotations from the literature indicative of each author's attention to each of the themes. Through this process, the definitions of each theme became more specific and concrete. This very large collection of quotations then formed the basis for drafting a series of explicit statements, each defining a characteristic of the Open Education teacher's behavior and attitudes as presented in this literature.

As a further means of ascertaining the validitiy of our findings, we submitted the list of 106 characteristics which resulted from our research of the literature to forty-three "experts" in the field of Open Education, asking them to apply to the eight statements of themes and the 106 defining characteristics the same three-point rating scale as was used in our content analysis of the literature. Those surveyed included not only the authors on whose work the instrument is based, but also other notable practitioners, advisors and advocates, researchers, and theorists of Open Education. Half of these "experts" made the ratings while an additional one third responded by letter only.

Their ratings and the copious comments and suggestions which we received in response to our request formed the basis upon which we revised the list.

General written responses ranged from interest and encouragement for this preliminary attempt to make a listing of some of the salient pedagogical characteristics of Open Education to frustration with or dislike of the list-of-statements framework. The crux of the predicament is caught in these words of one respondent who added helpful notes to several items:

> I really don't approve of a checklist such as this. Actually you haven't done a bad job but so much meaning is lost in each question. I don't know that there is any one comment I could make which is always true.

Others found it impossible to make ratings of this sort on Open Education and preferred to offer extensive commentary.

> I find that as soon as I start to go through a checklist, of almost any sort, I am entering mentally so many reservations about my responses that by the end it seems to me that my cumulative replies, or ratings, provide a seriously erroneous view of what I really think about the subject being evaluated. This is, perhaps, especially true in an area such as education, where one of the main difficulties people have encountered over the years of trying to improve learning and teaching is that they have had the idea that somehow good learning is a sum of individual acts, and that if only we can tabulate and evaluate these acts, we can in a meaningful way capture something critical about children's teaching and learning.

Others, however, expressed confidence that such a listing could provide a valuable contribution to the study of Open Education.

Two further general comments were taken into consideration in making revisions. These concerns centered on the need for a clearer image of the teacher and for a sense of continuing development. The first was an unintended and incorrect image of the Open Education teacher which the list of statements apparently conveyed to some readers. One advisor wrote:

> In the wording and selection of items in the sections on Provisioning for Learning, Diagnosis of Learning Events, Instruction--Guidance and Extension of Learning--and Reflective Evaluation of Diagnostic Information, there is either a bias or understanding gap. I read from these that open education is almost wholly child-directed, woven out of rather random materialistic interactions, and orchestrated by a teacher who is a strange phantom.

Another wrote that she detected "insufficient stress on the teacher's role as a developing one rather than an accomplished one." These statements were made by advisor/advocates who are deeply involved in working directly with teachers. Another advisor also stressed the need for emphasis on the teacher as a person who changes, whose role develops in a particular direction over time:

> It may be that the essence of what is happening is to be found rather in the relationship between the characteristics and their change over time instead of the characteristics per se. I can imagine, and I have seen, classrooms which have many of the characteristics which we would value and the classes were not particularly good ones. . . .. I have tried to think of an analogy . . . . I would consider it important that a car come with at least three different gears in addition to reverse. The car won't function very well unless the driver understands which to use at the appropriate time. A skillful driver may even be able to compensate for the lack of a particular gear under certain circumstances.

The revised list of characteristics, therefore, makes clearer the teacher's presence, especially in the first four themes.

The revised list contains ninety items. Some characteristics were found to contain two ideas which should be considered separately. Other items were collapsed or absorbed into one another, or in some cases dropped altogether, whenever such treatment satisfied the comments and ratings offered. These changes were made in order to make a somewhat shorter and thereby more usable list, as well as to improve the list in accordance with the experts' responses. Items which received generally low ratings and additional comments indicating sufficienct doubt about their validity were dropped. For example, one preliminary item--"The teacher refrains from direct correction and from making judgmental statements"--elicited a wide variety of comments, ranging from slight doubt to outright rejection.

> Ah ha--here is the American version coming out. In contrast, in the schools I've visited in England, teachers make a great many "corrections" and "judgmental statements." I've even heard one teacher say about a child's art work that the picture was "stinking." I see a fundamental difference in American "Open Education" and so-called "British Infant Schools," namely the sentimental, "anything goes" of the American "Open Education" teachers, versus high quality maintained of "good work" by the British teachers.

One expert initially was moved to write "BAD" next to this item. He evidently then had second thoughts about his own judgmental statement and crossed it out, writing instead that direct correction and judgmental

statements are "two very different things."

Preliminary item "Formal class lessons are not conducted" is an example of an item which half the respondents did not rate as very important and which was seen as more appropriately covered elsewhere in the list. One respondent wrote:

> I think this item should be elaborated and given positively. The inverse of what is stated here negatively is that direct teaching and tutoring occurs with the individual or with small groups assembled by the teacher based on her continuing assessment of the needs and development of the student.

Another typical comment stated simply, "There is a place for some such lessons." Comments offered on this item and another resulted in the revised item--"The teacher avoids whole class assignments, instead, amplifies and extends the possibilities or activities children have chosen through conversation, introduction of related materials, direct instruction when warrented, and assignments appropriate to indiviudal needs."

In general, the kinds of changes which we made are reflected in the theme of Instruction, where through a good deal of rewording, reordering, and clarifying, the twelve orginal items became nine.

The revised list of characteristics takes the form of an untested instrument (see Apendix) adaptable to special uses such as Open Education workshops, team efforts, self-evaluation, and development of further measures.* It must above all be used only with recognition of its limitations and possible abuses. A composite ideal must not be viewed as a prescription for any real teacher.

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*A teacher questionnaire and a classroom rating scale which we developed based upon this revised list are the subject of another study in the Pilot Communities series; see Judith T. Evans: Characteristics of Open Education: Results from a Classroom Observation Rating Scale and a Teacher Questionnaire.

In addition this revision obviously cannot be viewed as final, especially since it attempts to catch the general pedagogical style of an approach to teaching characterized by adaptability, flexibility, and responsiveness. In the end its essence may in fact be caught only metaphorically. Using the analogy of one respondent, not only must the skillful driver understand which gear to use at the appropriate time and be able to compensate for inadequate gears at times, but he also responds to changing roads and changing available automotive equipment as he seeks to reach his destination.

V. QUOTATIONS FROM MAJOR WRITINGS

This chapter presents the revised list of characteristics, each accompanied by illustrative quotations from Open Education literature to elaborate and explicate each of the eight themes and the ninety specific pedagogical characteristics. In many cases, a quotation could have served equally well in support of a different characteristic from the one under which it is placed. This problem of assignment demonstrates the interrelatedness of the characteristics and of themes in Open Education, and it serves as a reminder of the necessary artificiality of defining the characteristics into explicit, separate categories. Among other things, this presentation of quotations demonstrates the significant overlapping among characteristics and among themes, a feature of Open Education pedagogy.

Naturally, this listing is far from exhaustive. Since the purpose of the list is to convey the feeling and thinking underlying each characteristic, it should be understood that the collection of quotations chosen from any one author does not necessarily imply the emphasis in his full work. Conversely, the absence of a quotation from a particular author for a particular characteristic does not necessarily imply that he did not attach importance to that characteristic; in the case of several authors, a quotation for almost every characteristic could have been cited. In preparing this collection of illustrative quotations, the attempt has been made to cover all of the selected writers.

The teacher tends to give individual children small concentrated amounts of her time rather than giving her general attention to the children as a class all day.

> "When they work at it, teachers find they can make time during the day for children who need it. 'I can give all my attention to a child for five minutes, and that's worth more to him than being part of a sea of faces all day,' said a teacher in an East London school overlooking the docks." (Featherstone, 1967, p. 6)

> "When C. gave her attention to a child or to a group of children, she gave it very fully and appeared at leisure to carry on a really long and satisfactorily completed conversation." (Gardner & Cass, 1965, p. 162)

The teacher plans instruction individually and pragmatically; she becomes involved in the work of each child as one who seeks to help him realize his goals and potential.

> "She must also watch and follow the real interests of the children. Children will always be excited and stimulated to work on things that are nearest to their hearts . . . . Whilst the children work, the teacher will encourage them to talk about what they are doing although sometimes their absorption will be too intense to do this. There is a great deal of skill in knowing when to initiate discussion . . . . The teacher will however need to assess the development of each child objectively so that she is able to determine the stability of understanding of concepts and so ensure progression." (Brown & Precious, 1968, pp. 29-30)

> "To understand the children as individuals and be able to plan for their needs, knowing their strengths and weaknesses, the teacher needs to observe." (Prescott, 1970, p. 8)

The teacher gives diagnostic attention to the particular child and the specific activity in which he is involved before suggesting any change, extension, or redirection of activity.

> "As much as possible, children should be taught skills to solve problems they have initiated and not as ends in themselves. As teachers, we have to become more skilled in watching what the child is doing, in talking with him about it before dashing in with the needed skill." (Raoul, 1970, p. 23)

> "The teacher must constantly scan the room, the corridor, the space outside the room, observing children who are working with different materials and with other children. In deciding when or when not to intervene, he must constantly ask himself the question, 'Is there some way I can help further this child's exploration?'" (Barth, 1970, p. 75)

The teacher uses the child's interaction with materials, equipment, and his environment as the basis of her instruction.

> "The child must discover the fact for himself in his own time. He will do this if the relevant material is available to him in sufficient quantity and variety, if he is given many opportunities of handling it and trying it out (playing with it if you like) and if his teacher is constantly on the watch to assist the passage from one stage to the next, to encourage the dawn of understanding, to detect it when it happens and to open the way ahead." (Blackie, 1967, p. 87)

> "When the children have used something, the teacher wants to see what the child has made with it--if it's a material that's going to show something at the end. If it's water play, what the child has discovered from the water play. If it's junk--what the child has made from it. Whatever they do, they talk about what they've done--if they're unable to write. That is a must." (Cazden, 1969, p. 18)

Instead of giving whole-class assignments, the teacher amplifies and extends the possibilities of activities children have chosen, through conversation, introduction of related materials, direct instruction when warranted, and assignments appropriate to individual needs.

> "We knew that children's play discloses starting points of interest from which the teacher can unfold for them the possibilities of extension . . . . It is hard to predict what direction an interest will take. The driving force behind it is the children's own involvement and not the teacher's prepared plans or dominating influence, but the teacher is the one who may see the exciting possibilities which unfold only gradually to the children, so she must be ready." (Prescott, 1970, p. 5)

> "MATH CORNER: . . . The emphasis in this area was upon individual exploration, particularly with concrete materials, and discovery of mathematical concepts; the structure, and pattern of mathematics. There was continual teacher guidance and suggestion, but little teacher instruction in the sense of a group being given instruction followed by mechanical practice. The environment was of utmost importance in the development of mathematical concepts in this way." (Sargent, 1970, p. 36)

The teacher keeps in mind long-term goals for her children which inform her guidance and extension of a child's involvement in his chosen activity.

> "It is perfectly possible to maintain rather fixed ultimate goals while at the same time including considerable daily flexibility with regard to short-term objectives. Thus a teacher might have very definite expectations concerning a student's learning of mathematics, yet not be willing to press for any particular yearly or monthly or daily 'mathematics schedule' for any given child." (Rathbone, 1970, p. 51)

> "A lot of the knowledge the teacher has given--you could say--'incidentally,' but not really incidentally because no teacher does it incidentally. She's got something and she wants to put it over to the children, doesn't she? She's not just throwing little pearls here and there. She really has got that in her mind that these children want to make cakes right. 'Now cakes?' The feel of different things . . . . Even from that you can go on and find out how do we get flour. You can do quite a lot, according to the age of the children, their knowledge, and their desire to know." (Cazden, 1969, p. 7)

The teacher encourages children's independence and exercise of real choice.

> "When a child asks for help, the teacher can encourage independence by asking himself a series of difficult questions: 'Is this child really asking for help by what he is doing? Does this child really need help? What will happen if he doesn't get help from me? If he needs help is it in his best interests for me to provide it, or can he get it from some other source?'" (Barth, 1970, p. 105)

> If she manages not to exert pressure or bully children into activities, she will find that they will develop interests in the materials provided and some children will bring interests into the classroom from outside. If the right environment is provided and the teacher can be patient, the exciting things will begin to happen." (Brown & Precious, 1968, p. 29)

The approach to learning is interdisciplinary; e.g., the child is not expected to confine himself to a single subject, such as mathematics, when learning.

> "There are few obvious barriers between subjects, and much of the children's work is, in fact, interdisciplinary." (Armington, 1969, p. 7)

"Subject barriers and divisions of time do not and could not exist in this school with such a dynamic atmosphere. The children's interests and needs are the determining factor, not the timetable and subjects." (Brown & Precious, 1968, p. 57)

"Rigid division of the curriculum into subjects tends to interrupt children's trains of thought and of interest and to hinder them from realising the common elements in problem solving. These are among the many reasons why some work, at least, should cut across subject divisions at all stages in the primary school."

Activities are not prescribed or constrained by predetermined curricula, but rather arise from children's interests and responses to materials.

"Children's responses to the environment provide many of the starting points for learning. Activities most often arise from the needs and interests of the group rather than from a prescribed curriculum. When commercial materials and programs are used, they must be made available in ways that protect the children's responsibility for their own learning." (Armington, 1969, p. 6)

"Since anything and everything a child may do can provide the occasion to be maximized, teachers are always teaching; the intellectual and emotional demands seem relentless and unending. And teachers need to be informed about many more things; the curriculum is not limited to the teacher's lesson plan, but is as broad and unpredictable as the children's interests." (Silberman, 1970, p. 267)

To obtain diagnostic information, the teacher takes an interest in the specific concern of the individual child at the moment, through attentive observing and experience-based questioning.

"The knowledge of children gained from 'active' observation is invaluable to teachers. It gives common ground for conversation and exchange of ideas which it is among the most important duties of teachers to initiate and foster." (Plowden, 1967, p. 194)

"At the same time /the teacher/ is steering and expanding thinking, feeding ideas, and asking questions, she must be prepared to stop, observe, and listen to the child's explanation of what he has done." (Prescott, 1970, p. 5)

In diagnosis, the teacher pays attention not only to the correctness of a child's response or solution, but also to the understanding and reasoning processes which led the child to it.

> "Teachers say they can watch children as they work and ask them questions; there is a better chance of finding out what children really understand." (Featherstone, 1967, p. 6)

> "To the extent the adult can recognize and share the child's cognitive and emotional investment of his work, in progress, he will worry less about incomplete or imperfect products." (Barth, 1970, p. 114)

Errors are seen as a valuable part of the learning process because they provide information which the teacher and child can use to further the child's learning.

> "The teacher's attitude towards error likewise contributes to the overall psychological climate, for fear of failure need not be great when error is treated as a normal, non-reprehensible part of the learning process. Theoretically, this is a climate in which it is possible to benefit from mistakes and not one in which they must be hidden in order to avoid ridicule." (in Rathbone, 1970, p. 89)

> "One important facet of the teacher's role is her diagnosis of the children's difficulties and the giving of appropriate help. These difficulties may occur on any front: social, emotional or intellectual. It is important that the teacher observes any wrong interpretations which children make. She must discover and help with any difficulties in learning a new skill or in the development of concepts or any problems on a social or emotional level." (Brown & Precious, 1968, p. 33)

In diagnosis, the teacher values the child's fantasy as an aid in understanding his concerns, interests, and motivation.

> "Fantasy is a certain sort of imaginative feeling that all children should be free to express . . . . Adults who deny children the expression of their wonder and fantasy with insistence on factual statement and thinking are surely maltreating their children." (Richardson, 1964, p. 126)

> "DRAMATIC PLAY AREA: A collection of dress-ups (clothes) were kept all year in the washroom. Here the children were free to explore and imitate what interested them in the world around

them. Through role-playing they tried on other people as they would try on a hat. There were many opportunities for clarifying mis-information, offering new pieces of information. There were also many opportunities for incorporating naturally the skills of reading, writing, and numbers into their play." (Sargent, 1970, p. 56)

When the teacher groups children, she bases her grouping upon her own observations and judgment rather than upon standardized tests and norms.

"Groupings are not based on fixed criteria such as I.Q. or reading level, but are kept flexible, shifting with the changing needs and interests of the children." (Armington, 1969, p. 7)

Children do not always depend on teacher judgment; they also diagnose their progress through the materials they are working with.

"Materials in the classroom . . . have the capacity to provide information back to the child--information which lets him know if and to what extent he has answered his question . . . . In the traditional school, the child has little responsibility and opportunity for participating in the assessment of his work." (Barth, 1970, p. 38)

"/Andy/ started by trying to put 8 rods in each cup, ran out of rods, and said, 'That won't work.' Then he put 4 rods in each cup, which gave him 8 rods left over. I thought he would distribute these among the 8 cups; to my amazement he emptied all the cups and started all over. Then he tried to put 6 rods in each cup; not enough rods. Then he tried 5 rods per cup, which worked. One of the beauties of this kind of work is that Andy had no idea, as he struggled toward the solution, that he was making mistakes. In his clumsy way he was doing a piece of research, and without having to be told that it was so, he saw that every unsuccessful attempt brought him closer to the answer he sought." (Holt, 1964, p. 114-115)

The environment includes materials developed by teacher and children; and common environmental materials (such as plant life, rocks, sand, and water, pets, egg cartons, and plastic bottles).

"A lot of rich material is needed, according to the teachers, but the best stuff is often homemade." (Featherstone, 1967, p. 4)

"Whilst a room needs to be well equipped with purchased apparatus, the children will also need a wealth of other materials for all types of work. These should include the elemental materials of sand, clay, water and wood." (Brown & Precious, 1969, p. 21)

"On the one hand, teachers almost seem to favor the inclusion of scrounged 'junk'; on the other, children are permitted, even encouraged to introduce whatever material (within reason) they wish to have in the classroom." (Rathbone, 1970, p. 48)

Materials are readily accessible to children.

"This teacher had in her classroom an amazingly large collection of materials and reference books. Whatever a child needed seemed always to be at hand. All of these materials were easily available on shelves or tables round the room. Generally the children went to the shelves to take whatever they needed." (Gardner & Cass, 1965, p. 159)

"As the children arrive at school first thing in the morning, they come straight in and quite naturally start to do things. Many will be continuing an activity from the day before. Some will be attracted by a stimulating piece of equipment in math or science. Some will become immediately involved with creative expression in various media. Others will go straight to the section for domestic or dramatic play, some to the reading area or any of the other activities available in the room and some will just chat with a friend. This is the start of the day. For this to happen, the materials and apparatus must be readily available and within easy reach." (Brown & Precious, 1969, p. 18)

Manipulative materials are supplied in great diversity and range with little replication (i.e., not class sets), and children work directly with them.

"Regarding the quantity of material stocked, a high density is maintained whenever possible, the feeling being that children should be offered the widest possible choice among the various pieces of equipment, books, tools, etc. . . . Although a high density of materials is generally maintained in these classrooms, there is a correspondingly low incidence of outright duplication." (Rathbone, 1970, p. 46)

"The idea is to have all the first steps performed on real materials, not as abstract exercises. Before a child tackles two times seven, he handles two sets of seven things, and seven sets of two things, using different kinds of objects." (Featherstone, 1967, p. 10)

Books are supplied in diversity and profusion, including reference books, children's literature and "books" written by the students.

> "Increasingly in the good infant schools, there are no textbooks and no class readers. There are just books, in profusion . . . a great many single books, at all levels of difficulty." (Featherstone, 1967, p. 5)

> "This lavish provision of books and their constant use has perhaps been the most striking change in the English primary school since the war. Until it happened the full possibilities of children using their own initiative could not be realized or even imagined. In every subject teachers have been surprised at how much children will do when given a chance, and the chance is so often a good supply of good books." (Blackie, 1967, p. 62)

The teacher frequently modified the content and arrangement of the classroom based upon diagnosis and evaluation of the children's needs and interests and their use of materials and space.

> "The timing of the introduction of materials is as important to child and adult as the nature of the materials . . . . Only keen, first-hand observation can guide the teacher. Thus, one cannot separate the role of the teacher in selecting and supplying materials, from the role of the teacher in observing and diagnosing children's behavior. In order to prescribe and select materials to make available to children tomorrow, we must take advantage of what they are telling us today." (Barth, 1970, p. 92)

> "During the course of a given year in an open classroom the environment changes many times. The important thing is that the teacher be prepared to be adaptable and allow the children's interests to develop. Then the environment will perforce change because of them." (Prescott, 1970, p. 8)

The teacher permits and encourages children's use of materials in ways she had not forseen and helps to move activity into useful channels.

> "Very often the teacher will put exciting material down which will suggest something to the child. . . . She might put down some cardboard boxes and think, 'That will give the children an idea. They might start making a train.' Then she must be prepared to find that it's been turned into a robot." (Cazden, 1969, p. 11)

> "A further expression of this attitude - regarding the child's right to put the equipment to whatever use suits his immediate purposes - is revealed in Open Education's fear of 'unitization.' Hull, for example, in 'Plastic Tubes, etc.' warns that as discrete curricular items become 'unitized,' the likelihood decreases of children having free-wheeling, long-term involvement with the materials at hand." (Rathbone, 1970, p. 49)

While each child has an individual space for his own personal storage, the major portion of the classroom space is organized for shared use by all.

> "The teacher in the open school organizes his classroom . . . to extend the range of possibilities children can explore. Children's desks are often removed from the room, leaving only chairs and tables. In classrooms where desks remain they may not be assigned to individual children. Space within the classroom is divided, often by movable screens or furniture, into 'interest areas,' each perhaps ten feet square." (Barth, 1970, p. 80)

> "In these classrooms there are no individual desks and no assigned places. Around the room . . . there are different tables for different kinds of activities: art, water and sand play, number work." (Featherstone, 1967, p. 4)

Activity areas provide for a variety of potential usage and allow for a range of ability levels.

> "The teacher's task is to provide an environment and opportunities which are sufficiently challenging for children and yet not so difficult as to be outside their reach. There has to be the right mixture of the familiar and the novel, the right match to the stage of learning the child has reached." (Silberman, 1970, p. 218)

> "The arrangement of the spaces in the classroom are of utmost importance to the creation of an atmosphere in which children interact with one another and with the environment of materials. The arrangement is a fluid one, shifting as needs changed, new stimulation was needed." (Sargent, 1970, p .4)

Many different activities generally go on simultaneously.

> "Typically, there is a variety of activities going on simultaneously, each child working in ways best suited to his interests, talents, and style." (Armington, 1964, p. 6-7)

> "Hence, at any given moment one is likely to find some children just starting, some just ending and others very much in the middle of a variety of tasks." (Rathbone, 1970, p. 33)

Children move freely about the room without asking permission.

> ". . . among other things, giving children freedom to choose from selected activities in the classroom and to move around the room, talking to each other." (Featherstone, 1967, p. 12)

> "and children were of course moving around all the time. They were trusted." (Weber, 1967, p. 412)

Children are free to make use of other areas of the building and school yard for educational purposes.

> "Equally significant is the flexibility of (the classroom's) assumed perimeter. For the boundary represented by those four walls is by no means generally accepted. . . Often multiple exits to the out-of-doors are available, and children are allowed and expected to take advantage of them as they will . . . the extended environment is not only acknowledged, it is capitalized on and made deliberately inviting. When weather permits, carpentry, nature study, waterplay and even reading are as likely to be taking place outside as in." (Rathbone, 1970, p. 28-29)

> "Ideally (the children) are free to use the whole of the school and are not strictly confined to one teacher in one room." (Brown & Precious, 1969, p. 14)

Informal talking between children and exchanging of information and ideas is encouraged as contributing to learning.

> "Children are encouraged to talk, to communicate with each other and the adults around them about the things that interest and engage them. The incredible richness and variety of stuff in the classroom and the great diversity of activities going on at once provide that encouragement. . . . A silent classroom, [British informal teachers] patiently tell American visitors, is the worst possible preparation for learning to read and write." (Silberman, 1970, p. 241)

> "Children are encouraged to talk in the good British primary schools, because, among other reasons, it seems that they make better intellectual progress when they can speak freely about what they are doing and when the teacher is ready from time to time with questions and appropriate terms." (Featherstone, 1967, p. 9)

Children help one another.

> "The children talk with each other about their work and often work together. Their learning is frequently a cooperative enterprise marked by dialogue." (Armington, 1969, p. 7)
>
> ". . . the extent to which children learn from each other, slow children learning from the quick, and the bright ones in turn, learning from the role of teacher they adopt with the slow. This is most evident in the small number of schools that have adopted family, or vertical, grouping: where there is not only no grouping by ability, but also no grouping by age, and every class contains a mixed bag of older and younger children." (Featherstone, 1967, p. 15)

The teacher divides the day into large blocks of time within which children, with the help of the teacher, largely determine their own program.

> "We maintained a highly flexible schedule, with the emphasis upon the child's planning of his individual schedule which best suits his needs." (Sargent, 1970, p. 3)
>
> "The child is given the freedom to choose the things with which he wants to become involved and this can be achieved more easily where there is no parcelling out of time or directing of groups of children to different activities." (Brown & Precious, 1969, p. 17)
>
> "There is a definite expectation, at Sea Mills and elsewhere, that each child will do some reading, writing, and arithmetic each day . . . But it still leaves each child responsible for selecting the form of his work, and the time during the day when he will do it. An integrated day can accommodate all kinds of individual schedules." (Cazden, 1971, p. 11)

Children generally work individually and in small groups largely determined by their own choices and guided by the teacher.

> "(In place of) the traditional rigid timetable which divides the day into a succession of short periods . . . there are longer periods during which, at the teacher's discretion and under his supervision, students may be engaged individually or in small groups in a wide variety of activities." (Silberman, 1970, p. 209)

> "In sum, grouping of children in Open Education schools is both flexible and functional. In part, it is determined by the school or the teacher; on a day-to-day level, however, much of the decision-making concerning who shall work with whom and for how long is left to the children themselves." (Rathbone, 1970, p. 44)

The teacher occasionally groups children for lessons directed at specific immediate needs.

> "Within this broad mix of ages and abilities, constant short-term functional grouping occurs. Often self-selected, sometimes teacher-assigned, these sub-groups congregate within a particular area and for the purpose of attending to a particular task. For example, a seven year old might read a story to four fives; two sixes might construct a castle out of X-blocks together." (Rathbone, 1970, p. 39)

The teacher provides some occasions when the whole group gathers for such activities as story or discussion, to share feelings and ideas and activities, and in order to promote the sense of belonging to the group.

> "We sometimes began with a group meeting when there was some information to get across, some matter to discuss, or plans to be made. In the fall we met each morning as we got to know one another and to help us jell as a group." (Sargent, 1970, p. 3)

> "The process was a delicate one, with the teacher leading and directing but at the same time humbly ready to learn from the children. All of them, children and teacher, pursued the one end, which was to realize precisely and to express adequately their growing awareness of the world around them . . . An essential part was the non-directive discussion which took place so often and was a continuous background to all the work of the class." (Richardson, 1964, p. vii)

The class is heterogeneous with regard to ability; streaming or establishing class assignment according to similarity of ability is not practiced.

> ". . . among the three ages one can have as wide a range of ability as one has in an average second grade classroom. The difference is that the range looks and feels better to the children in our setting; all the differences are completely acceptable." (Prescott, 1970, p. 15)
>
> "Tracking . . . is not necessary in primary schools where the emphasis is on individual learning. English teachers are coming to see workable alternatives to ability grouping." (Featherstone, 1967, p. 2)
>
> "Open educators are universal in their condemnation of ability grouping . . . they believe that if a teacher is to respect children as individuals, then he cannot arrange them in homogeneous groups." (Barth, 1970, p. 77)

The teacher promotes a purposeful atmosphere by expecting and enabling the children to use their time productively and to value their work and learning.

> "The extent to which children really have a choice and really work purposefully is astonishing . . . The purposeful self-discipline of these children is, we were told, just as surprising to middle-aged Englishmen as it is to Americans." (Featherstone, 1967, p. 5-6)
>
> "The teacher occasionally glances around the room from where she is seated, working with a student on his 'maths,' but the sounds of activity seldom require damping down: everyone is talking; some are hammering at a bench (outdoors if possible); children are getting out apparatus or putting it away; highly spillable substances, such as soap suds and poster paints, are being poured and carried, sometimes spilled, always mopped up without fuss; and through it all there is a sense of the utmost serenity and purposefulness." (Yeomans, 1969, p. 21)

The teacher uses her observation of the child's interaction with materials and people as well as what he produces as the basis of her evaluation of his learning.

> "In one way, evaluation is easier in a classroom full of materials. Most children in this type of environment are behaving overtly; the trained eye can 'see' what they are doing and make inferences about what they are thinking. The teacher has the unique opportunity to observe children as persons and as investigators in context--interacting with materials." (Barth, 1970, p. 113)

> "Sources of information about a child include his parents and friends, the child's conversation, his writing and picture making, but the most valuable source is through careful observation." (Brown & Precious, 1968, p. 33-34)
>
> "It's only in observing your children that you really do know your children." (Cazden, 1969)

Standardized, grade-level, or age-level "norms" are not used for evaluating the child or his work.

> "The open teacher does not have a common, predetermined yardstick of academic and personal behavior against which he compares children." (Barth, 1970, p. 112)
>
> "The ability and stage of development of each child is constantly in the teacher's mind so that if a teacher does feel the need to assess, it should be in terms of the child's own progress. Natural regression and the delicate balance of the child's health, his happiness, and his peace of mind must be taken into account and any criticism should always be helpful and encouraging." (Brown & Precious, 1968, p. 32-33)
>
> "External incentives such as marks . . . influence children's learning mainly by evoking or representing parents' or teachers' approval . . . The children who most need the incentive of good marks are least likely to gain them." (Plowden, 1967, p. 196)

Evaluation of the effect of a child's school experience covers a long range of time--more than a year--and is not accomplished by looking only at data collected in a single situation or series of experiences.

> "Couple all that with your own observations in the classroom and the fact that with this family grouping, you do keep your children the whole time. At the end of the two years, or three years in the case of some children, you really do know them." (Cazden, 1969, p. 10)
>
> "Enjoyment of books and of reading was of as much concern as the decoding skills with the aim being the development of both over a three year period." (Sargent, 1970, p. 16)

The teacher's record-keeping consists of individual notes and progress reports chronicling the child's cognitive, emotional, and physical development.

"In informal conditions, it is essential for the teacher to keep detailed and accurate accounts of what a child is learning, even though at any given moment she might not know what he's up to. Children help by keeping their own records . . . If Americans could ever see some of the detailed histories kept of each child's separate path . . . they would feel, quite rightly, that a report card is a swindle." (Featherstone, 1967, p. 6)

"She jots. She jots during the day, and she writes it up at the end of the week. She keeps a very comprehensive record about her children, about their characteristics, when they show that they're beginning to take leadership, when they are apprehensive." (Cazden, 1969, p. 10)

"From time to time the teacher stops for a minute to jot down a comment in the record book she keeps for each child (Peter is trying to write his name for the first time, Evelyn is making much brighter pictures, John seems to be resisting maths, Susan has learned to multiply by two, James is coming out of his shell--he talked more easily and played with others for the first time)." (Silberman, 1970, p. 225)

<u>The teacher keeps a collection of each child's work for use in making her own evaluations and encouraging the child's self-evaluation</u>.

> "A careful record has to be kept of what each child does so as to ensure that over a period, say of a term, there is a proper balance between subjects and appropriate progress within subjects. If each child has a folder in which all his written work, in whatever subject, is kept, it will be possible to see quite rapidly whether both these requirements are being met. The teacher will also maintain his own records and these two together will constitute a more informative and useful account of work done than the old type of teacher's record which was simply a statement of lessons given and set." (Blackie, 1967, p. 49-50)

> "Chronicling a child's behavior and collecting examples of his work removes the teacher from attempting to make categorical and arbitrary judgments about a child's performance." (Barth, 1970, p. 112)

<u>The teacher uses evaluation of both the child's work and the classroom environment to guide not only her interacting with him but also her provisioning of the environment</u>.

"The teacher is . . . making notes and thinking ahead to the provision she must make for tomorrow . . . When Yvonne was working from the book How to Make a Doll's Dress, she was confusing twice as big with half as big. 'I must remember that tomorrow and see how I can help her towards understanding this point . . . What else have I to remember? . . . A further supply of bulbs and batteries so that the boys can light up the mechanical men. They were frustrated today when the batteries would not work.'" (Brown & Precious, 1968, p. 50)

"There were some who for long periods of time did not write anything that was considered to be of value. I felt that I had to increase the amount of environmental study so that there was sufficient stimulation . . . It was necessary to induce attitudes of awareness in the children so that they become observers as well as appreciators of the world around them." (Richardson, 1964, p. 47)

> "In the open school evaluation is primarily for the benefit of the learner and only secondarily for the convenience and benefit of parent, teacher, or administrator." (Barth, 1970, p. 112)

The teacher respects each child's personal style of operating, thinking, and acting.

> "At the end of the second stage of my work here, perhaps the greatest result of all was in the new teacher-child relationship. I had learned to respect the intelligence, integrity, creativity, and capacity for deep thought and hard work latent somewhere in every child: they had learned that I differed from them only in years and experience, and that as I, an ordinary human being, loved and respected them, I expected payment in kind. Conversation and discussion became one of our chief delights, and above all, we learned to laugh together." (Marshall, 1966, p. 76)

> "In short, the teacher in the open school respects children as individuals by stressing the quality of the relationship between adult and child and among children." (Barth, 1970, p. 79)

The teacher rarely commands.

> "Most important, however, the free day classroom relieves the teacher of the necessity of being a timekeeper, traffic cop, and disciplinarian. In a formal classroom a large proportion of the teacher's time and an extraordinary amount of her energy are consumed simply by the need to maintain order and control. ('I cannot begin until all talking has stopped and every eye on me!')" (Silberman, 1970, p. 268)

> "It was generally the less able individual who gave the most orders. One teacher was very anxious that her children should be independent, a very commendable thing. She did, however, give her children too many specific orders, 'Mary, go and wipe your face and hands,' 'John, put the bricks away,' . . .If (the more secure teachers) wanted help, or a simple routine carried out, they would encourage independence rather than demand it." (Gardner & Cass, 1965, p. 166)

The teacher values each child's activities and products as legitimate expressions of their interests, not simply as reflections of his development.

> "Children recognize themselves in and through the things they make. From their paintings, their prints and their pottery they learn answers to the question, 'Who am I?' They are then free to respect others for their achievements and their insight because they themselves, standing amid the work of their hands, take a solid pride in their own craftsmanship or artistry." (Melser, Introduction to Richardson, 1964, p. v)

> "If the children are valued for themselves, they will not be judged or labelled." (Brown & Precious, 1969, p. 37)

The teacher demonstrates respect for each child's ideas by making use of them whenever possible.

> "When visiting the classrooms of good teachers, one is always struck by their tendency to stand back and let the children's work be seen. The visitor will be told of the ideas suggested by the children, and success achieved by one or another child will be pointed out. Nothing will be said of their own share in bringing about a situation in which the child's ideas were accepted and used and their achievements encouraged and helped." (Gardner & Cass, 1965, p. 21)

The teacher respects each child's feelings by taking them seriously.

> "(Miss C.) showed a genuine sharing of her feelings and ideas with those of the children and she not only sympathised with them, joining in with their joy or sorrow, she also shared such of her own feelings as were capable of being understood by the children concerned." (Gardner & Cass, 1965, p. 163)

> "General caring for the child . . . means caring for his intellectual development, of course, because this is what school is all about. But it also means caring for the emotional and physical and spiritual sides as well." (quoted in Silberman, 1970, p. 232)

The teacher recognizes and does not hide her own emotional responses.

> "It is not only desirable from the adult's point of view that he behave openly with children, it is essential from the child's point of view. Children must receive frequent and accurate responses from the personal as well as from the physical world; in order to learn, they must be provided with the interpersonal consequences of their actions as well as the physical consequences. Thus, prompt expression of annoyance and anger towards a disruptive child is essential for both teacher and child and for the establishment of their relationship." (Barth, 1970, p. 69)

> "It is important too that (the teacher) is not afraid for the child to know that she is a human being and so has weaknesses as well as strengths. The tendency in the past was for the teacher to be afraid to show a 'chink in the armour' and the children were faced with the impossible task of trying to model themselves on this infallible being who had no faults and was never wrong." (Brown & Precious, 1969, p. 28)

Children feel free to express their feelings.

> "In such a classroom, children can work out their relationships with each other and come to terms with their own impulses. There is legitimate outlet for feelings of insecurity, hate, fear, aggression and love in dramatic, imaginative, social and creative spheres . . . The child must feel fairly secure within himself and with the social and physical world around him or he will be prevented from becoming completely absorbed in his activities and unable to express himself freely." (Brown & Precious, 1969, p. 14)

> "'Even in a subject like math, it becomes harder and harder to separate feelings from thinking.' 'Yeah,' another student chimed in. 'I remember hearing myself say in class, "Now I know what I'm about to say is emotional, so don't take it too seriously" and suddenly I thought, 'Who says we shouldn't take emotion seriously? Who says that a reaction to a situation is only valid if it is cerebral?' 'Sure, feelings are important and there's no reason to delegate them to some sort of second place. So now I don't, and I don't think many others do, either.'" (Silberman, 1970, p. 360)

The teacher attempts to recognize each child's emotions with an understanding of that particular child and the circumstances.

> "[The teacher] is the one person to whom every child in her class can refer to as a counsellor, guide and friend and rely on for mutual understanding and respect. The children should be able to communicate ideas in every media and feel secure if they wish to reveal their innermost thoughts and feelings. She must be respected by all her children because of her interest and concern for them and they will then feel free to use their own initiative in the learning situation." (Brown & Precious, 1969, p. 34)

> "This view of children in school, then acknowledges the emotional and psychological facts of living in groups. It accepts the consequences of drawing children out, helping them express their ideas and their feelings, encouraging them to find, assert and know their own unique points of view. It recognizes too, an obligation to provide a suitable context for these children--alone, among peers, or in a one-to-one relationship with the adult in the room--to thrash out and become comfortable with their own feelings." (Rathbone, 1970, p. 92)

Conflict is recognized and worked out within the context of the group, not simply forbidden or handled by the teacher alone.

> "When a child is behaving in a severely destructive or disturbing way--say destroying another student's art work--the offended child will probably make his grievance known. If the class cannot resolve this situation the teacher may gather the children around and discuss the problem. Children are usually willing and able to identify what is bothering them and to suggest ways of coping with it. Usually a meeting of this kind, convened in response to disruptive behavior establishes the fact that the class recognizes and objects to specific behavior on the part of a child, thereby putting him on notice that he is disturbing others." (Barth, 1970, p. 110)

> "[The] teacher acknowledges the inevitability of interpersonal conflict within his classroom. In recognizing it, however, he also recognizes his obligation to deal with it; he does not reserve that part of growing-up for recess, but instead makes the assumption that children have the capacity to work out their conflicts and anxieties within a group of classmates." (Rathbone, 1970, p. 91)

There is no abdication of responsible adult authority.

> "Open schools are not laissez-faire places where anything goes. The teacher knows and the child knows that an authority is present and that the teacher, no matter how personal and supportive he may be, is that authority. Teachers believe that although a child may appear to work for disorder, no child enjoys disorder. All recognize that unless someone is in charge, they will not be able to move freely, explore freely, and choose freely. In many open classes there are only two rules: no destroying equipment; no destroying or interfering with the work of other children." (Barth, 1970, p. 111)

> "In some (progressive era) schools, the energies of staff and children were wasted in testing the limits of permissible behavior, a procedure that was almost forced on the children by an abdication of adult authority. It is not strange that the abdication did not always result in freedom: in practice, freeing children from adult authority can mean exposing them to the tyranny of their peers, and eliminating 'external' rules can mean setting up subtle and unacknowledged rules that are just as ruthless and, even worse, vague and arbitrary." (Featherstone, 1967, p. 13)

The class operates within clear guidelines, made explicit.

> "'Six children can play in the Wendy House,' says a sign in one classroom. The ground rules are that they must clean up when they finish, and they mustn't bother others." (Featherstone, 1967, p. 4)

> "[The teacher] has the final responsiblity for making decisions and setting the boundaries between what is acceptable and what is unacceptable in the room; but the discipline of the group is based on mutual respect between the teacher and the child, and between child and child, and is gradually assumed as group responsibility." (Brown & Precious, 1969, p. 26)

The teacher promotes openness and trust among children and in her relationship with each child.

> "The teacher will first of all want to know the children as individuals. This takes a little time since it will not just be a matter of knowing their names, or even what they can do, but will mean getting to know them as people. This means establishing a relationship with them. Ideally this will be a relationship of mutual trust and respect, in which coercion and punishment have no place and where marks and rewards are unnecessary." (Blackie, 1967, p. 37)

> "Ideally, the Open Education classroom is 'a place of trust and openness, where interpersonal defensiveness has nearly disappeared, where expression of feeling is encouraged by others and accepted by the group. Feelings are aired freely as inhibitions are loosened, and people become more and more receptive to honest observations of themselves, their own motives and the behaviors and motives of others. As communication about these things increases, so does mutual respect, and, with both, a greater capacity for toleration of difference. The result is an increase in an individual's freedom to change, if and when he finds change desirable.'" (quoted in Rathbone, 1970, p. 87)

Relationships are characterized by unsentimental warmth and affection.

> "Her real affection for the children showed itself in her untiring efforts on their behalf to stimulate and to encourage, her sensitivity and quickness to sense their need for help over a difficult patch, and her very real sympathy, expressed both by words or comfort and a caress when a child was hurt or unhappy." (Gardner & Cass, 1965, p. 160)

> "And always the school functioned as a community, a community of artist-scientists . . . Personal views, even eccentric ones, were welcomed. The primary demand on the child was that he should think through to exactly what he observed, felt, or believed . . . But combined with this demand for the expression of a personal view, and of course necessary to it, was the willing acceptance of idiosyncrasy and the affectionate acceptance of the strengths and limitations of each member of the group." (Richardson, 1964, p. vi)

The teacher recognizes and admits her limitations when she feels unable to give a child the help he needs.

> "Informal education relieves the teacher of the terrible burden of omniscience . . . In an informal classroom . . the teacher is the facilitator rather than the source of learning, the source being the child himself. . . The consequence is an atmosphere in which everyone is learning together, and in which teachers therefore feel comfortable saying to children, 'I'm awfully sorry, I don't know much about this. Let's go to the library and get a book and we'll find out together,' or 'What kind of experiment can we set up together to find the answer?' or 'Where might we turn to find out?'" (Silberman, 1970, p. 267-268)

> "... .if the teacher does not know, it would be better to be honest and admit it but suggest a way that they could both find out." (Brown & Precious, 1969, p. 31)

In evaluating a child's work, the teacher responds sincerely, based upon a real examination of the product and its relation to the particular child and circumstances.

> "If we are to judge our children not by scores or grades, or by what we have decided a child of a certain age should do, or by a body of certain facts we think he should know, but by quality and quantity of his work, we shall have to look a bit more closely at this quality. In the work cited above, certain things stand out. It is not thought of as good work for a five-year-old, or a teacher, or a second grader, but simply as good work." (Raoul, 1970, p. 22)

> "The teacher who smiles encouragingly at every unrecognizable daub and tells the perpetrator that it is good, just to encourage him, must expect nothing better, for as Dr. Johnson so rightly said, he who praises everybody praises nobody.... Most children instinctively mistrust this kind of fulsome flattery, and know, as country people say of a frozen potato, that it is 'oversweet to be wholesome.'" (Marshall, 1966

The teacher promotes an unthreatening climate by helping children to accept mistakes as part of learning, not as measures of failure.

> "When the teacher assumes a non-judgmental attitude toward children's work and when the multi-age peer group is not being motivated to compete for extrinsic rewards; when a child does not feel pressured to produce within a given time period some product that is going to be graded, and when there is a general acceptance (and even encouragement) of displaying individual differences...then the psycho-emotional climate of the classroom can adequately reflect the trust and respect implicit in the ethical ideology of Open Education." (Rathbone, 1970, p. 89)

> "The children respond in kind, developing a capacity for self-control and self-direction that one rarely finds in children educated in formal schools....The children's self-discipline and self-direction is accompanied by a relaxed and easy self-confidence; everywhere I went, the children were open and friendly without being brash." (Silberman, 1970, p. 235)

The teacher seeks information about new materials.

> "Because the teacher's concept of knowledge is not centered around subjects but rather student's interests and initiative does not mean that an open teacher can be an intellectual dilletante.... Since there can be no way for the teacher to predict and plan what knowledge he must have in order to respond to a child's inquiry, he must read and explore widely in areas in which his students seem to be showing a keen interest--animals, machines, cities, dinosaurs." (Barth, 1970, p. 7)

> "I am personally concerned about my own development as a teacher and feel that the 'opening up' that this workshop will provide will enhance and change me as a teacher.... I want to learn about new materials and ideas." (quoted in Yeomans, 1969b, p. 11)

The teacher experiments herself with materials.

> "The recent trend in 'in-service' training seems to be to encourage the involvement of teachers in workshop situations. Here, teachers are themselves experimenting with materials; following out their own interests, developing ideas, often being shocked by their discoveries into realizing that facts which they had previously accepted are, perhaps open to doubt and sometimes they are made aware of great gaps in their own understanding." (Brown & Precious, 1969, p. 32)

> "Good, open-ended materials are often in themselves a kind of retraining course for willing teachers, helping them to become more confident of trying informal methods...the really valuable and enduring part of curriculum reform is the process of creation and thought; unless you let teachers in on that, the stuff is likely to be dead." (Featherstone, 1967, p. 15)

The teacher seeks further information about the community and its physical and cultural resources.

> "Later, eleven community aides came to work at the Boardman School. They saw it as it was,--and they told it as it was. There were no secrets. They were community consultants. They were a highly beneficial and successful aid to education at the Boardman School.... Another important and most essential ingredient was the parent group that formed....A strong bond slowly began to grow between staff and parents." (Howard, 1971, p. 12)

> "I was curious about the plants that lived in these gullies, and one of my first thoughts was to cut tracks up to some of the clumps of trees, so that we could collect and cultivate plants that they contained. For a time we visited one bush patch and brought young trees back, but most of them died as our ground did not offer enough shelter from sun and weather....As we moved through the hilly scrub-country, again and again I stopped to examine the grey clays in the creek beds. I had a considerable interest in clay because I looked forward to introducing pottery to the school, but as yet I had little technical knowledge of the processes involved....The lessons we learnt in these first few months were real and valuable ones....The plant collecting and growing failed, and I saw that it was not only the unusual plant life that should engage us in our nature study. I saw that our interest in clay was real and valuable. I did not abandon the nature programme but modified it so that we studied the common species as well." (Richardson, 1964, p. 15)

The teacher makes use of help from a supportive advisor.

> "Teachers are bound to need a good deal of continuing help, support, and reassurance if they are to make the change comfortably and successfully." (Silberman, 1970, p.320)

> "One important agent in the growth of the Leicestershire schools during the past two decades has been the 'Advisory Center,' a group of individuals whose sole function is to facilitate change. Advisors play a unique role....As facilitators of change advisors have extensive knowledge of the learning process, practical experience as teachers, and familiarity with curriculum and materials....His style is to work with those individuals who are ready for his services. His aim always is to help schools realize their own unique potentialities and to help make change self-sustaining." (Armington, 1969, p.3-4)

The teacher enjoys ongoing communication with other teachers about children and learning.

> "Another time we might talk about some new number equipment that had come on the market. Or one of the staff--I give them time off to visit other schools--one of the staff might come in and say, 'I went to a school, and I saw this going on. I thought it was a good idea. Do you think we could try it?' And we'd all talk about it." (Cazden, 1969, p.26)

> "Where is [the teacher] to get help? In part he can get help from those who have been over the same ground themselves....In part he can get it from his family....And in part he needs to rely on his friends and colleagues--the fellow teachers who share his principal, his PTA, and his coffee room and on whom he depends for support and for feedback....Without such support and such feedback, change is not likely to take place." (Borton, 1970, p.175)

The teacher attempts to know more about her children by getting to know their parents or relatives and their neighborhood.

> "Sources of information about a child include his parents and friends....There are many well-tried ways of making contacts with parents. PTA's, parents' evenings and arranged interviews are all very successful but any other opportunity of establishing parents' confidence in the school and gaining their cooperation should be taken. By taking a child home when he is unwell

...by talking to a parent at the school gate or when you meet in the locality....It is vital that there should be satisfactory contact with partents." (Brown & Precious, 1969, p. 34)

"But if they can select what they want to do, and you can find out the thoughts that are going on in the child's mind, you really do begin to know your children. Couple that with the fact that you can see the parents--talk to them, find out a little what's it like in the home, whether they are sharing a house or whether they're living in two rooms." (Cazden, 1971, p.10)

The teacher sees herself as a continual learner who explores new ideas

"The concept of the teacher as authority figure and supreme dispenser of knowledge must be changed. Now more than ever, learning requires that teachers, as well as children, adopt the spirit and style of the experimenter." (Armington, 1969, p. 7)

"In the ideal Open Education classroom, then, the following aspects of teaching are emphasized:...The teacher as an experimenter engaged in clinical research in at least two fields--child psychology and curriculum development." (Rathbone, 1970, pp. 107-108)

The teacher sees herself as a continual learner who explores new ideas and possibilities both inside and outside the classroom.

"But organizational and curricular changes are merely vehicles for a much more fundamental change. The really important thing is the professional growth of the teachers, and thus the establishment of a climate conducive to such growth...the formation of a climate of professional growth in which teachers themselves innovate, make decisions about education, and have the ability and skill to turn ideas into practice. Professional growth involves freedom to integrate in new ways, freedom to make mistakes, and freedom to be one's self." (LGW Sealey, quoted in Yeomans, 1969a, p.23)

"[The teacher] must have the opportunity, indeed the responsibility to continue his own learning. The classroom environment we envision makes it easy for children and teachers to be collaborators in learning." (Armington, 1969, p.7)

The teacher values the way she is teaching as an opportunity for her own personal and professional growth and change.

"For what I myself learned during these years I have mainly my children to thank. They were my teachers as I was theirs, and the basis of our relationship was sincerity, without which, I am convinced, there can be no creative education." (Richardson, 1964, p.xiii)

> "The integrated day is an outward result of an inward feeling about children, adults, learning, growth, families, community, and life...It attracts good teachers, for it offers growth to the teacher as well as to the child. It can only flourish where the conditions are right, and one of the conditions is that teachers be given the same initiative and responsibility that are desired for children." (Yeomans, 1969a, p. 27)

The teacher feels comfortable with children taking the initiative in learning, making choices, and being independent of her.

> "To me it's as natural as breathing. I don't think that you could ever begin to teach in any other way." (Cazden, 1969, p. 23)

> "My own educational experience, as well as that of the children I have worked with, leads me to believe that people learn best when they learn from their own initiative. I am attending the workshop in the hope that I will gain some practical suggestions and a better understanding of how I might better stimulate the initiative of my children." (quoted in Yeomans, 1969a, p. 11)

The teacher recognizes her own habits and need for importance and recognition; she tries to restrain herself from intervening in children's activities based on these needs rather than the children's.

> "The facilitator of learning must be, above all, a secure person. Being secure, he has the ability to restrain himself from prematurely closing a child's exploration by 'giving the answer.' He doesn't need to solicit the attention, admiration and respect of his students. He finds joy, excitement, and meaning in watching children discover ideas for themselves and takes pride in how little he needs to do to help initiate and sustain exploration and learning." (Barth, 1970, p. 119)

> "A teacher cannot make much headway in understanding others or in helping others to understand themselves unless he is endeavouring to understand himself. If he is not engaged in the endeavour he will continue to see those whom he teaches through the bias and distortions of his own unrecognized needs, fears, desires, anxieties, hostile impulses, and so on." (quoted in Gardner & Cass, 1965, p. 11)

The teacher sees her own feelings as an acceptable part of the classroom experience.

> "Open Educators believe that suppression of feeling occurs at great emotional expense to the teacher. They value the

> teacher as a human being with all human failings and strengths. Teachers in open schools are not only permitted but encouraged to be themselves--to be honest, angry, loving, upset, tired, happy--to be real. One does not play the role of teacher at the expense of being oneself; one is oneself and thereby a teacher." (Barth, 1970, p.68)
>
> "This teacher must be able to intervene, knowingly, employing his own personality in the classroom--not presenting himself merely as an authority figure, but as a complete, fully responding human being." (Rathbone, 1970, p.125)

The teacher trusts children's ability to operate effectively and learn in a framework not structured by her and not centered on her.

> "The external motions teachers go through in the schools matter less than what the teachers are and what they think. An organizational change--the free day, for example, or simply rearranging classroom space--is unlikely to make much difference unless teachers really believe that in a rich environment young children can learn a great deal by themselves and that most often their own choices reflect their needs." (Featherstone, 1967, p.7)
>
> " She must be convinced in her own mind that what she is doing is of great value educationally. This is where the unconvinced teacher is at sea. (Brown & Precious, 1969, p. 34)

The teacher sees herself as one of many sources of knowledge and attention in the classroom.

> "The teacher in the open school is not a transmitter of knowledge.... The key role of the teacher as facilitator of learning then, is to maximize the likelihood that each child will be fully engaged in an activity for as much of the day as possible, to encourage the active exploration by the child of his world." (Barth, 1970, pp.70,73-74)
>
> "The second essential is the paid professional educator who...realizes that he doesn't know all the answers." (Howard, 1971, p. 15-16)

The teacher feels comfortable working without pre-determined lesson plans and set curricula, or fixed time periods for subjects.

> "The great difference is that the teacher doesn't go along saying to herself, 'This is what I'm going to teach the children today.' She goes to school prepared for anything."

> Because it's going to come from the children."
> (Cazden, 1969, p. 2)

> "Several of them told me that it required a difficult adjustment on their part to accept the teaching philosophy of the Integrated Day. They had come to depend upon traditional routines and structure as a background for their daily function as teachers. However, they found it possible to develop different routines and structures within the new situation because they believed in it. They work harder than they did, but they enjoy it more, and they are sure that the children are learning more than they did under the older methods." (Yeomans, 1969a, p. 27-28)

The teacher views herself as one who can facilitate learning in a structure requiring spontaneous response to individuals and changing situations.

> "In organizing a class on activity lines and working an integrated day, the teacher must have real conviction and understanding of the underlying philosophy and have the confidence in herself to carry it out, feel secure in her ability as a teacher, enjoy the thought of the unexpected happening in her room and of the classroom scene changing hour by hour." (Brown & Precious, 1969, p. 29)

> " the teacher is ideally one who has an understanding of and a confidence in his own resources. Acceptance of self, of one's own ability to ascertain what is true, belief in one's ability to build adequate models of reality by observing the way things happen, confidence in one's own powers, not only to solve significant problems but to set them and perceive them in the first place: these are the attitudes towards self which this way of schooling tries deliberately to promote. The teacher who feels these things himself and who knows he feels them and who feels able to communicate their importance to another person: this is the ideal teacher who will have the capacity to function straightforwardly as a human resource." (Rathbone, 1970, p. 129-130)

Children's innate curiosity and self-perpetuating exploratory behavior should form the basis of their learning in school; they should have the opportunity to pursue interests as deeply and for as long as the pursuit is satisfying.

> "Piaget's observations support the belief that children have a natural urge to explore and discover, that they find pleasure in satisfying it and that it is therefore self-perpetuating." (Plowden, 1967, p. 195)

> "It was agreed that when children first come to school they are curious, creative, and have a great desire to learn." (Howard, 1971, p. 10)

Providing for sustained involvement requires a flexible and individualized organization of time.

> "The integrated day could be described as a school day which is combined into a whole and has the minimum of timetabling... The child is encouraged to commit himself completely to the work in hand which he has chosen. The child also has the time to pursue something in depth even though it may take several days. As he works, problems common to various subjects will arise but within the integrated framework he can make easy transition between many areas of learning." (Brown & Precious, 1969, p. 12-13)

> "Children's interest varies in length according to personality, age and circumstances, and it is folly either to interrupt it when it is intense, or to flog it when it has declined." (Plowden, 1967, p. 198)

Children are capable, with varying degrees of support of making intelligent decisions in significant areas of their own learning.

> "An underlying sense of trust in the innate abilities of children, in their capacity to energize and direct their own exploration constructively, and in their wanting to explore and learn...Open Educators question whether the adult is the best judge of how to organize children's time to ensure maximum intellectual development. They argue that until adults know more about how children think and learn, the child is a better judge of his needs with respect to time than is the adult." (Barth, 1970, p. 16; p. 34)

> "There is, in addition, a conviction that learning is likely to be more effective if it grows out of what interests the learner, rather than what interests the teacher." (Silberman, 1970, p. 209)

Premature conceptualization based upon inadequate direct experience leads to lack of real understanding and to dependance on others for learning.

> "If too great maturity is demanded of them, children fall back on half remembered formulae and become concerned only to give the reply the teacher wants. Children can think and form concepts, so long as they work at their own level and are not made to feel that they are failures...Verbal explanation, in advance of understanding based on experience, may be an obstacle to learning. (Plowden, 1967, p. 196)

> "'Desperately reliant on their elders, these traditional school children work at memorizing words and symbols teachers emphasize without ever being able to amass a background of experience that would make the symbols intelligible.'" (Featherstone, in Rathbone,

Individual children often learn in unpredicted ways, at their own rate, and according to their own style.

> "'[S]chool organization allows for individual differences but only as those differences show up in one dimension, a rate of progression...we should emphasize individual differences in all their qualitative richness.'" (Hawkins, in Barth, 1970, p.32)

> "In the last 20 years schools have provided far more individual work, as they have increasingly realized how much children of the same age differ in their powers of perception and imagery, in their interests, and in their span of concentration." (Plowden, 1967, p. 274)

Work and play are not distinguished in the learning process of children because play is a child's way of learning.

> "This distinction between work and play is false....We know now that play in the sense of 'messing about' either with material objects or with other children, and of creating fantasies--is vital to children's learning and therefore vital in school....It is the way through which children reconcile their inner lives with external reality. In play, children gradually develop concepts of casual relationships, the power to discriminate, to make judgements, to analyse and synthesize, to imagine and to formulate." (Plowden, 1967, p. 193)

> "Children who have been accustomed to learning in these ways make no distinction between what to others is work and what is play. These children throw themselves fully into everything they do--working playfully, if you will. That's what adults do who are absorbed in their jobs and happy in them. It is quite normal for children to function in the same way." (Quoted in Yeomans, 1969a, p.19)

Knowledge is a personal synthesis of one's own experience; the learning of "skills" and "subjects" proceeds along many intersecting paths simultaneously.

> " The teacher in the open school believes that what each person knows is idiosyncratic and can never be 'known' by another in exactly the same way....What each individual knows is a unique consequence of his exploration of the real world. The climate and the emphasis in the open classroom, then, is on how one comes to know, that one can come to know, rather than on what is to be known and knowing it." (Barth, 1970, p. 70)

> "He must actively invent and reinvent what he wants to understand for understanding, as Piaget puts it, is a transformation of reality." (Silberman, 1970, p. 215)

Traditional techniques of evaluation do not necessarily measure those qualities of learning which are most important, and may have a negative effect on learning.

> "Objective assessment of factors that really matter would seem to be almost impossible. As a result, things that we can and do measure are often trivial....There are, arising from an informal approach, qualities which are very difficult to test and define...qualities of initiative, independence, social skill." (Barth, 1970, p. 41)

> "The real challenge posed by Open Education's attitude towards evaluation, of course, is an overall questioning of traditional evaluatory techniques. For when proponents of Open Education do set down the questions they would most like answered, the list does not lend itself to any simple or established system of measurement." (Rathborne, 1970, p. 166)

Looking at a child's development over a long period of time is more useful for evaluation then comparing him with his peers or a standardized norm.

> "Evaluation takes a long time....the only real way to evaluate the effectiveness of the free program is to find out how students perform after they have completed their schooling." (Quoted in Barth, 1970, p. 43)

> "A teacher must plan to learn about the children through their choices and so begin to acquire specific content and definition from each child, for the variables of significant choice and quality of involvement. It is only through such learning, in turn, that a teacher can modify initial goals and materials or intervene successfully to enhance the ongoing process....Although it is the teacher's function to know 'where the child is' and in that sense to evaluate his work, Open Education does not generally consider it the teacher's duty to assess the child's product against some external standard of achievement, announcing to the child a 'grade' in the tradiational manner." (Rathbone, 1970, p. 101; p. 112)

Children have the right to make important decisions regarding their own educational experience.

> "Believing that the organizing force of a curriculum should be, not the structure of codified knowledge nor any finite set of skills deemed important by the society sponsoring the school, but rather the child's own question-asking and problem-setting activities, Open Education insists on the child's right to pursue whatever question interests him, as well as his right to articulate freely his perception of any issue. It perceives a child's integrity as being violated, therefore, when a teacher makes too final a decision about the appropriateness of a particular task or idea." (Rathbone, 1970, p. 83)

The child must be valued as a human being, treated with courtesy, kindness, and respect.

> "To the Open Education proponent, a child is a moral being. He has a right to elect what he will do and what he shall be; he has the obligation to preserve similar rights for others... to honor the child's rights as a human being, then, is central to the Open Education ethic. It means treating him with courtesy, kindness, and respect; it means valuing him as a human being whose rights are no less valid than an adult's." (Rathbone, 1970, p. 82)

> "The two basic assumptions are children respond in kind to courteous and considerate treatment by adults, and that they will work with concentration and diligence at tasks which are suited to their abilities." (Plowden, 1967, p. 267)

The child's life in school should not be viewed primarily as preparation for the future; each child's experiences are justifiable in themselves and not dependent on future performance for justification.

> "...the best preparation for being a happy and useful man or woman is to live fully as a child." (Plowden, 1967, p. 188)

> "Advocates of informal education begin with a conception of childhood as something to be cherished, a conception that leads in turn to a concern with the quality of the school experience in its own right, not merely as preparation for later schooling or for later life." (Silberman, 1970, p. 209)

> "Open education stresses the present, not the future; living, not preparing for life; learning now, not anticipating the future. But in the sense that development of self-reliance and independence on the part of the child will be the best assurance that he will be equipped for whatever may come, open education becomes a preparation for the future." (Barth, 1970, p. 106)

With a few consistent, reasonable and explicit rules and limits, children are able to be more free and productive.

> "A certain amount of management of children by adults, a certain amount of imposed order, structure, and control is a necessary pre-condition for independent exploration. Reasonable, consistent restrictions on children's behavior ultimately enables them to be more free and productive. (Barth, 1970, p. 106)

> "In practice...eliminating 'external' rules can mean setting up subtle and unacknowledged rules that are just as ruthless and even worse, vague and arbitrary." (Featherstone, 1967, p. 13)

> "The children have the opportunity for social experience with their peers and the teacher encourages this interaction. She does not step in and prohibit every time she sees children starting to argue for they will never learn about interaction for themselves unless they experience it personally. She does however have set and consistent bounds beyound which no child can go...With understanding and help, the child soon begins to develop a responsibility for his own behavior rather than relying on outside authority and control." (Brown & Precious, 1968, p. 58)

<u>An accepting and warm emotional climate is an essential element in children's learning.</u>

> "The loving care which caused every child to be treated as a person in his own right and gave the teacher his sincere interest in the response each child made to his environment was communicated to the children...love and understanding grew together, providing the only medium in which work with this quality could grow." (Richardson, 1964, p. vii)

> "The nurturing of individual potential requires an educational setting that is stimulating and challenging, and at the same time warm and supportive." (Howard, 1968, p. 1)

<u>Learning is facilitated by relationships of openness, trust, and mutual respect.</u>

> "In the last resort, the teacher's relationship with his pupils, his openness to their suggestions and their trust in him are far more important than the nominal degree of freedom in the time-table." (Plowden, 1967, p. 198)

> "Where this relationship exists a very favourable atmosphere for learning has been created. The children feel free and relaxed and at the same time, in the care of someone whom they respect and to whose authority they can trust themselves." (Blackie, 1967, p. 37)

Fear of making mistakes or of not doing well impedes a child's progress in learning.

> "Open Educators seek to take the moral loading, the connotation of 'bad' or 'wrong,' off of children's mistakes and help them to see the function their mistakes can serve in directing subsequent learning...in much the way a scientist uses his mistakes ...Not only is it unnecessary, but perhaps undesirable, for adults to prevent children from making mistakes. Such intervention cuts off avenues of exploration perhaps blind alleys--and thereby prevents children from discovering for themselves their own limitations." (Barth, 1970, p. 44)

> "'...fear of failure need not be great when error is treated as a normal, non-reprehensible part of the learning process. Theoretically this is a 'climate in which it is possible to benefit from mistakes and not one in which they must be hidden in order to avoid ridicule.'" (quoted in Rathbone, 1970, p. 89)

Objectives of education should include but go beyond literacy, dissemination of knowledge, and concept acquisition.

> "Most teachers in the informal schools visited, for example, were not just concerned with giving their students proficiency in the technical skills and mechanics of reading. They are equally interested in what the children use their proficiency for, and in the pleasure they derive from it...And so most informal teachers and heads also reject the view that 'one piece of learning is as good as any other.' Their responsibility, as they see it, is to create an environment that will stimulate children's interest in and evoke their curiosity about all the things they should be interested in and curious about: reading, writing, talking, counting, weighing, measuring; art, music, dance, sculpture; the beauty and wonder of the world about them, relationships with adults and other children; and above all, the process of learning itself...It is also to teach the child to know what is worth knowing." (Silberman, 1970, p. 240)

> "We believe, finally, that if children are going to live fully in the modern world, the schools must embrace objectives that go far beyond literacy training, the dissemination of information, and the acquisition of concepts." (Armington, 1969, p. 5)

The function of school is to help children learn to learn: to acquire both the ability and the willingness to extend their intellectual and emotional resources and bring them to bear in making decisions, organizing experience,

and utilizing knowledge.

> "...One of the main educational tasks of the primary school is to build on and strengthen children's intrinsic interest in learning and lead them to learn for themselves rather than from fear of disapproval or desire for praise." (Plowden, 1967, p. 196)
>
> " Informal educators take an optimistic view of human nature, and they attempt to help children become autonomous, self-motivated, and self-directed learners. Informal educators also have an optimistic view of the human being's--all human beings'--capacity for growth and fulfillment, and therefore refuse to see their role as training people to fill the existing slots in society and the economy." (Silberman, 1970, p. 232)

VI. CONCLUSION

Why the foregoing? More than anything else, we view it as a starting point. Though modest and crude, the content analysis is the most recent extensive examination of literature on the topic of Open Education. There are many difficulties and much subjectivity in ranking works in this manner, but it does offer a method for identifying systematic trends in a body of literature.

We hope some useful purposes have been served: We have found some consistent differences between Open Education authors and others. The thinking is evolutionary (especially from Rousseau and the Progressives) rather than revolutionary; they are distinctive and will, if nothing else, give engaged educators a fresh point of view, a comparative touchstone for educational practice. Our definitions of the eight themes, the revised list of characteristics and excerpts of the authors' works present a means for learning about distinctive characteristics of Open Education. The comments in the text on the authors and their writings may serve as a guide to further reading and refinement of points of view.

In general there has been an absence of systematic theorizing among the Open Educators. Their ideas seem to derive inductively from the practice of teaching. Meanwhile "Romantic Critics" of education and others are rendering a devastating picture of contemporary education and offering few constructive alternatives, while "Establishment Educationists" are wondering whether their philosophies and psychologies are viable or oppressive. Open Education, as it has been described in the writings we reviewed, offers a chance for real attention to individual learning, respect for the child, authentic relationships, and opportunities for both teacher and child to participate in significant learning. These

factors may help to explain the widespread interest in the movement. But the concept requires more scrutiny by philosophers, psychologists, and others who contribute to educational ideology. How do its characteristics fit together? Why aren't there other essential themes? What are the underlying pre-suppositions about child development, society, and culture? How should adaptations be made if Open Education is to improve the school experience of youngsters above the third grade?

These are valid questions to ask about new educational concepts. Perhaps we have identified some of the elements of the questions here.

Teachers may wish to measure themselves on our revised list to see how their ideas compare with those of Open Education. To repeat our earlier metaphor of teachers as gardeners, we hasten to repeat that a green thumb may only come from watching and helping a master and from doing one's own puttering. Nevertheless, we hope our analysis of Open Educators' views of the nature of teaching and the nurture of children in schools will prove interesting and useful to those who want to understand the movement.

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VIII. APPENDIX

Revised List of

Open Education Characteristics

SOME PEDAGOGICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF OPEN EDUCATION TEACHERS AT THE PRIMARY LEVEL

The following list of characteristics is intended to contribute to a clarification of the assumptions and practices of teachers involved in Open Education. It can be used by teachers as a questionnaire, a self-administered "observation" of their own classroom practices and their internal frame of reference; it can be used as a basis for workshops or discussions in teachers' or team meetings, and it can be used as a source for construction of instruments for classroom observation and teacher interviews.

It attempts to describe a composite ideal based on the best practices and hopes presented in the literature and refined by people in the field. Although each statement is descriptive of Open Education, no teacher should expect to, nor probably want to, score all "3's." It is to be expected that the effective open teacher is first of all her own person, a distinct personality who cannot be measured against any set scale. Her behavior will be dictated by the complicated interactive play of her own nature and the many relevant aspects of the particular children whom she teaches. Her scores will make a particular, personal pattern over any instrument's scales. Awareness of how she scores, relevant to this abstract ideal, and perhaps to her colleagues or others, provides her with information she may find useful in evaluation of herself as a teacher and the classroom experience she is providing.

The characteristics are subdivided into eight themes helpful in conceptualizing the teacher's role in the open classroom. These themes derive from our reading of the literature on Open Education. Based on our study, we defined each of these themes by a set of characteristics and then made a statement for each characteristic. The resulting 106 characteristics were submitted to a group of educators, researchers, and observers chosen because of their serious involvement in the examination or practice of this educational approach. Revisions were based on their responses.

The first six themes describe the teacher's behavior and the environment which she provides. Rating these sixty-two items (pp.1-7) means deciding whether the statement definitely is true of the teacher and her classroom, whether it is somewhat true, or whether it is not true. The twenty-eight characteristics given in the last two themes (pp. 9-11) should be rated in terms of congruence with the teacher's beliefs.

PEDAGOGICAL CHARACTERISTICS

OF OPEN EDUCATION TEACHERS AT THE PRIMARY LEVEL

Instruction--Guidance and Extension of Learning	Untrue	Somewhat True	Very True
The teacher tends to give individual children small concentrated amounts of her time rather than giving her general attention to the children as a class all day.	1	2	3
The teacher plans instruction individually and pragmatically; she becomes involved in the work of each child as one who seeks to help him realize his goals and potential.	1	2	3
The teacher gives diagnostic attention to the particular child and the specific activity in which he is involved before suggesting any change, extension, or redirection of activity.	1	2	3
The teacher uses the child's interaction with materials, equipment, and his environment as the basis of her instruction.	1	2	3
Instead of giving whole class assignments, the teacher amplifies and extends the possibilities of activities children have chosen, through conversation, introduction of related materials and direct instruction and individual assignments when warranted.	1	2	3
The teacher keeps in mind long-term goals for her children which inform her guidance and extension of a child's involvement in his chosen activity.	1	2	3
The teacher encourages children's independence and exercise of real choice.	1	2	3
The approach to learning is inter-disciplinary; e.g. the child is not expected to confine himself to a single subject, such as mathematics, when learning.	1	2	3

	Untrue	Somewhat True	Very True
Activities are not prescribed or constrained by predetermined curricula, but rather arise from children's interests and responses to materials.	1	2	3
Diagnósis of Learning Events			
In diagnosis, the teacher pays attention not only to the correctness of a child's response or solution, but also to the understanding and reasoning processes which led the child to it.	1	2	3
To obtain diagnostic information, the teacher takes an interest in the specific concern of the individual child at the moment, through attentive observing and experience-based questioning.	1	2	3
Errors are seen as a valuable part of the learning process because they provide information which the teacher and child can use to further the child's learning.	1	2	3
In diagnosis, the teacher values the child's fantasy as an aid in understanding his concerns, interests, and motivations.	1	2	3
When the teacher groups children, she bases her grouping upon her own observations and judgement rather than upon standardized tests and norms.	1	2	3
Children do not always depend on teacher judgement; they are also encouraged to diagnose their progress through the materials they are working with.	1	2	3
Provisioning for Learning			
Manipulative materials are supplied in great diversity and range with little replication (i.e. not class sets), and children work directly with them.	1	2	3

	Untrue	Somewhat True	Very True
Books are supplied in diversity and profusion, including reference books, children's literature, and "books" written by the students.	1	2	3
The environment includes materials developed by teacher and children and common environmental materials (such as life, rocks, sand, water, pets, egg cartons, and plastic bottles.)	1	2	3
Materials are readily accessible to children.	1	2	3
The teacher frequently modifies the content and arrangement of the classroom based upon diagnosis and evaluation of the children's needs and interests and their use of materials and space.	1	2	3
The teacher permits and encourages children's use of materials in ways she had not foreseen and helps to move activity into useful channels.	1	2	3
While each child has an individual space for his own personal storage, the major portion of the classroom space is organized for shared use by all.	1	2	3
Activity areas provide for a variety of potential usage and allow for a range of ability levels.	1	2	3
Children move freely about the room without asking permission.	1	2	3
Children are free to use other areas of the building and school yard and neighborhood for educational purposes.	1	2	3
Many different activities generally go on simultaneously.	1	2	3
Informal talking between children and exchanging of information and ideas is encouraged as contributing to learning.	1	2	3
Children help one another.	1	2	3
The teacher divides the day into large blocks of time within which children, within which children, with the help of the			

	Untrue	Somewhat True	Very True
teacher, largely determine their own program.	1	2	3
Children generally work individually and in small groups largely determined by their own choices, and guided by the teacher.	1	2	3
The teacher occasionally groups children for lessons directed at specific immediate needs.	1	2	3
The teacher provides some occasions when the whole group gathers for such activities as story or discussion, to share feelings and ideas and activities, and in order to promote the sense of belonging to the group.	1	2	3
The class is heterogeneous with regard to ability; streaming or establishing class assignment according to similarity of ability is not practiced.	1	2	3
The teacher promotes a purposeful atmosphere by expecting and enabling the children to use their time productively and to value their work and learning.	1	2	3

Evaluation of Diagnostic Information

The teacher used her observation of a child's interaction with materials and people as well as what he produces as the basis of her evaluation of his learning.	1	2	3
Standardized, grade-level, or age-level "norms" of performance are not used for evaluating the child or his work.	1	2	3
Evaluation of the effect a child's school experience covers a long range of time--			

	True	Somewhat True	Very True
more than a year--and is not accomplished by looking only at data collected in a single situation or series of experiences.	1	2	3
The teacher's record-keeping consists of individual notes and progress reports chronicling the child's cognitive, emotional, and physical development.	1	2	3
The teacher keeps a collection of each child's work for use for making her own evaluation and encouraging the child's self-evaluation.	1	2	3
The teacher uses evaluation of both the child's work and the classroom environment to guide not only her interacting with him but also her provisioning of the environment.	1	2	3

Humaneness--Respect, Openness, and Warmth

The teacher respects each child's personal style of operating, thinking, and acting.	1	2	3
The teacher rarely commands.	1	2	3
The teacher values each child's activities and products as legitimate expressions of his interests, not simply as reflections of his development.	1	2	3
The teacher demonstrates respect for each child's ideas by making use of them whenever possible.	1	2	3
The teacher respects each child's feelings by taking them seriously.	1	2	3
The teacher recognizes and does not try to hide her own emotional responses.	1	2	3
Children feel free to express their feelings.	1	2	3

	True	Somewhat True	Very True
The teacher attempts to recognize each child's emotions with an understanding of that particular child and the circumstances.	1	2	3
Conflict is recognized and worked out within the context of the group, not simply forbidden or handled by the teacher alone.	1	2	3
There is no abdication of responsible adult authority.	1	2	3
The class operates within clear guide lines, made explicit.	1	2	3
The teacher promotes openness and trust among children and in her relationship with each child.	1	2	3
Relationships are characterized by unsentimental warmth and affection.	1	2	3
The teacher recognizes and admits her limitations when she feels unable to give a child the help he needs.	1	2	3
In evaluating a child's work, the teacher responds sincerely, based upon a real examination of the product and its relation to the particular child and circumstances.	1	2	3
The teacher promotes an unthreatening climate by helping children to accept mistakes as part of learning, not as measures of failure.	1	2	3

Seeking Opportunity to Promote Growth

The teacher seeks information about new materials.	1	2	3
The teacher experiments herself with materials.	1	2	3

	True	Somewhat True	Very True
The teacher seeks further information about the community and its physical and cultural resources.	1	2	3
The teacher makes use of help from a supportive advisor.	1	2	3
The teacher enjoys ongoing communication with other teachers about children and learning.	1	2	3
The teacher attempts to know more about the children by getting to know their parents or relatives and their neighborhood.	1	2	3

Self-Perception of the Teacher

The teacher views herself as an active experimenter in the process of creating and adapting ideas and materials.	1	2	3
The teacher sees herself as a continual learner who explores new ideas and possibilities both inside and outside the classroom.	1	2	3
The teacher values the way she is teaching as an opportunity for her own personal and professional growth and change.	1	2	3
The teacher feels comfortable with children taking the initiative in learning, making choices, and being independent of her.	1	2	3
The teacher recognizes her own habits and her need for importance and recognition; she tries to restrain herself from intervening in children's activities based on these needs rather than the children's.	1	2	3
The teacher sees her own feelings as an acceptable part of the classroom experience.	1	2	3

	True	Somewhat True	Very True
The teacher trusts children's ability to operate effectively and learn in a framework not centered on her.	1	2	3
The teacher sees herself as one of many sources of knowledge and attention in the classroom.	1	2	3
The teacher feels comfortable working without predetermined lesson plans and set curricula or fixed time periods for subjects.	1	2	3
The teacher views herself as one who can facilitate learning in a structure requiring spontaneous response to individuals and changing situations.	1	2	3

Assumptions--Ideas About Children and the Process of Learning

Children's innate curiosity and self-perpetuating exploratory behavior should form the basis of their learning in school; they should have the opportunity to pursue interests as deeply and for as long as the pursuit is satisfying.	1	2	3
Providing for sustained involvement requires a flexible and individualized organization of time.	1	2	3
Children are capable, with varying degrees of support, of making intelligent decisions in significant areas of their own learning.	1	2	3
Premature conceptualization based on inadequate direct experience leads to lack of real understanding and to dependence upon others for learning.	1	2	3
Individual children often learn in unpredicted ways, at their own rate, and according to their own style.	1	2	3

	True	Somewhat True	Very True
Work and play should not be distinguished in the learning process of children because play is a child's way of learning.	1	2	3
Knowledge is a personal synthesis of one's own experience; the learning of "skills" and subjects" proceeds along many intersecting paths simultaneously.	1	2	3
Traditional techniques of evaluation do not necessarily measure those qualities of learning which are most important, and may have a negative effect on learning.	1	2	3
Looking at a child's development over a long period of time is more useful for evaluation than comparing him with his peers or a standardized norm.	1	2	3
Children have the right to make important decisions regarding their own educational experience.	1	2	3
The child must be valued as a human being, treated with courtesy, kindness, and respect.	1	2	3
The child's life in school should not be viewed primarily as a preparation for the future; each child's experiences are justifiable in themselves and not dependent upon future performance for justification.	1	2	3
With a few consistent, reasonable, and explicit rules and limits, children are able to be more free and productive.	1	2	3
An accepting and warm emotional climate is an essential element in children's learning.	1	2	3
Learning is facilitated by relationships of openness, trust, and mutual respect.	1	2	3
Fear of making mistakes or of not doing well impedes a child's progress in learning.	1	2	3

	True	Somewhat True	Very True
Objectives of education should include, but go beyond, literacy, dissemination of information and concept acquisition.	1	2	3
The function of school is to help children learn to learn; to acquire both the ability and the willingness to extend their intellectual and emotional resources and bring them to bear in making decisions, organizing experience, and utilizing knowledge.	1	2	3